

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 2, 1874.

The Week.

THE only financial event of note during the week has been the voting of the Senate, striking out from Senator Sherman's bill the very moderate provisions made in it looking towards specie payments, showing that that body is given over completely to inflation in its maddest form. Happily, however, there is every sign that the country is fully awake to the gravity of the crisis. We have never seen the press more united or more earnest in its utterances on any subject. The only contribution of note to the financial discussion has been made by Mr. Edwards Pierrepont of this city, in the shape of a proposal that, leaving the legal-tender circulation at \$400,000,000, the Government should issue and sell to the highest bidder five per cent. gold bonds, having thirty years to run, for a similar amount, the proceeds to be devoted to the redemption of the greenbacks, and their "cancellation," says Mr. Pierrepont—but their destruction by fire, say we, to prevent the Boutwells and Richardsons getting at them again—and the gold to be exchanged with the national banks for their greenback reserve *pro rata*. He would then allow all persons depositing the new bonds with the Treasury, to the amount of \$100,000 or upwards, to set up banks and receive ninety per cent. of the sum in notes, redeemable in greenbacks, gold, or Government bonds at their face value, and would permit customs duties to be paid in Government coupons having not more than six months to run, less discount. The first advantage of this scheme is its common honesty. It would be an attempt on the part of the Government to borrow money at a reasonable interest to meet its overdue paper. The next is the provision for the withdrawal of legal-tender paper—the great curse of our present system of finance—and the substitution for it of paper which could not be kept out if the people did not want it. The third is, that it would not produce any stringency or cause any other inconveniences that we can see beyond the depression of "Governments" in the market. But we fear it would be useless to bring it to the notice of the present Congress.

In the Senate the business of the whole week has been the discussion of the Sherman bill. At first the Senate's vote was construed to mean that senators were willing to compromise and assent to the purpose of the House to authorize the reissue of the "reserve"; but it has since become apparent that more than this was meant, and that the Morton-Logan inflationists are likely to have much more of their way than at first appeared likely. Yesterday week, March 25, the bill came up, and the first subject of debate was Mr. Schurz's amendment, fixing the maximum amount of currency at \$356,000,000. Mr. Wright moved an amendment fixing the "amount of notes for circulation" at \$400,000,000. On Thursday a vote was reached, and Mr. Schurz's amendment went to the wall by a vote of 40 nays to 18 yeas. This was the apparent compromise vote. Then came up the amendment offered by Mr. Wright. It fixed the amount of notes for circulation at \$400,000,000, and there was at once a sharp debate on the phraseology of the amendment, Messrs. Morrill, Conkling, and others asserting that the peculiar wording was a trap, and that should the amendment be adopted nothing would hinder the addition of the "reserve" to the circulation. After some harsh remarks between Messrs. Morrill, Logan, and Schurz, the Wright amendment had to be modified, "maximum amount of United States notes" being substituted for the original phrasing. It then passed, 31 to 26. Exactly the same vote (as regards names) had just previously defeated an amendment of Mr. Morrill's (Vt.) ordering the maximum to be \$400,000,000 "until reduced as hereinafter provided." This

movement towards reduction was stopped by 31 nays to 26 yeas. On Monday, the attack on the bill (of which Senator Logan says that "the whole thing is a contraction scheme anyhow") was renewed. Mr. Hamlin attempted a compromise by moving that redemption in coin or interest-bearing bonds begin on Jan. 1, 1877, instead of Jan. 1, 1876. This had to be withdrawn under a ruling of the chair, and Mr. Morton moved to strike out altogether the section providing for ultimate redemption. This was done by 28 to 23. He then assailed the fourth section, which provides that when national bank-notes are issued under the terms of the bill, 70 per cent. of their amount shall at the same time be withdrawn in greenbacks, and on Tuesday he accomplished his object—yeas 29, nays 27.

The Cheap Transportation movement has had a great victory in the passage by the House of Mr. McCrary's bill for the establishment of a Commission with power to fix rates of transportation. This commission is to consist of nine members, one for each of the judicial districts of the United States, who are to be appointed by the President subject to the approval of the Senate. These commissioners are to be disinterested and patriotic men, who are to own no stock—common, preferred, or guaranteed, no bonds—income, land-grant, or of any other description, and in fact to possess no interest in any railroad. They are to meet together and to fix rates for the transportation of freight and passengers for all inter-State lines. The bill gets over the constitutional difficulty by declaring that all such lines are engaged in "commerce between the States." The clause that the commissioners shall have no interest in any railroad property is, we suppose, a wise and humane provision for enabling nine needy gentlemen to amass during their term of office what General Butler calls a "competent fortune." The railroads have shown no interest in the fate of the bill, and indeed there is no reason why they should. The law, even should it pass the Senate and be approved by the President, cannot be enforced, and the politicians who are engaged in pressing it know this perfectly well.

The Committee of Ways and Means have taken a great deal of testimony in the Sanborn contract affair during the past week, the general result of which is this: Sanborn's two deputies, John D. Coughlin and John F. Belsterling, have been put on the stand, and it appears that at one time they were both assistant assessors, the first in New York, the second in Philadelphia, and Coughlin, on March 25, 1873, applied for a contract to collect such taxes as Sanborn afterwards collected for a commission of fifteen per cent., and as this application was not acted on he went to work under Sanborn for 12½ per cent. No answer to his application was ever made. Coughlin did all the work, and Sanborn drew the money. Belsterling apparently made no collections in his district on account of the vigilance of Supervisor Tutton, and he admits that in his opinion, if Hawley and Simmons had done as Tutton did (that is, protected the interests of the Government), no collections would have been made in their districts either. Mr. George Bliss was next examined, and it appears from his testimony that he received 5 per cent. of collections from Sanborn; and it seems from what he says that the practice under the contract was for Sanborn to put a man's name down on his lists, inform the "proper officers," and then in all such cases the money went through Sanborn's hands. Bliss thought that 50 per cent. was rather a large percentage, and stated that Sanborn got all his information from a man named Waddell, who sold him a list of names taken from the Surrogate's office—a fact which does not look as if the information or its source was of a very secret nature. Sanborn made an attempt to put in an appearance, but broke down, and finally refused to testify, after saying that he had spent twenty or thirty thousand dollars in purchasing information.

Collector Simmons, of Boston, on being examined, swore that the law of May 8, 1872, was a surprise to him; and that on Sanborn's coming to him to put the usual machinery in motion (Sanborn wanted to "assist the proper officers" by having a special detective named Horton, ordered to report to him, Sanborn) he objected, when Sanborn told him that if he doubted his construction of the law he might go and see Mr. Richardson, who was then in Boston; that he did go and see him, and received verbal and afterwards written instructions to do what Sanborn wished. Simmons said he hardly knew what to say about Sanborn, he "was such a strange man"; he was "the sharpest railroad operator in New England"; he was known as "the mysterious man of New England"; and he "sort of managed things." Simmons admits that he now sees that he might have done more towards collecting taxes, but he did not then. Frank M. Green, one of Sanborn's employees, has been examined, as well as Presbrey, another employee, and it appears that these men obtained from the Treasury parchment commissions, with a steel engraving of the Treasurer and other devices, to give them an official appearance, constituting them members of the "Secret Service Division." E. C. Banfield, the Solicitor of the Treasury, has also been examined, and he admits that the Commissioner of Internal Revenue was not allowed to know of the Sanborn proceedings, but cannot explain why. As to the letter of Mr. Douglass, of October 1, 1873, to the Secretary, asking for information, which was referred to him as Solicitor, he says that on its first being brought to his attention, he went to the Secretary, and explained to him that he, Banfield, thought Richardson ought to answer it himself, and Richardson said he would think it over, and that there the matter was left; and admits that no steps whatever were taken to discover whether the lists of names furnished by Sanborn did or did not cover cases already in the hands of collectors; expressed the opinion that the letter of October 15, 1873, from the Secretary of the Treasury, directing supervisors and collectors to "assist John D. Sanborn" (reversing the words of the law of May 8) was substantially in accordance with the law, because "the idea of assistance is reciprocal"; and as to a letter given by the Secretary to Presbrey and Green—a letter of authority to act—Mr. Banfield was unable to explain why it had not been sent to the Committee, except because it was so difficult to find papers in the Treasury—a general statement in which he seems to be quite right. He admits that the proceedings of the officials were "anomalous," but says that the reason of this was that the law itself was "anomalous." It seems further that the "Secret Service Division," of which Presbrey and Green were such efficient members, is a bureau unknown to the law, the only authority for its creation being an appropriation of some \$125,000 a year for the detection of "counterfeiting and other frauds on the revenue," which the Secretary spends just as he pleases. To complete the evidence in this shameful case, we have only to add that the Sanborn trial in Brooklyn has resulted in acquittal on a technicality.

The Massachusetts Senatorial contest has, as we write, been going on for a week, and the seventh ballot has just been taken. A conclusion is said to be near; but it is no more evident to-day than it was some days since what the results are to be, except so far as this, that the apprehended rupture between the Butlerized wing of the party and the other wing appears already to have taken place, or to be very near taking place. Neither faction of the Republicans has been willing to let go its hold on the regular organization, knowing that to do so is to undergo an accusation of "treason," and the Democrats, fully alive to the dilemma of their opponents, have indulged themselves in a fit of reputability such as the party has hardly anywhere enjoyed for years. Throughout, Mr. Dawes has been in the attitude of a man demanding the place by letter, by a heavy lobby of the baser sort, by Butler's followers and the Administration office-holders, and in general has been "regular," except that the Anti-Butler-Sanborn-Simmons revulsion has prevented his friends from daring to go into a caucus. It is agreeable

to know that had Mr. Dawes been able to foresee Senator Sumner's death and prudently regulated his conduct in Mr. Simmons's little affair, he might easily have been Mr. Sumner's successor.

The Congregational Council has given an expected verdict. That is to say, it has in general asserted "Congregationalism," and the obligations of fellowship between churches, in a stronger sense than Plymouth Church in its preliminary correspondence seemed disposed to accept them; the two churches which wished to be advised got on all the submitted points the advice which they wished; it is incidentally suggested to Plymouth Church that fellowship between churches is something more than it has seemed to think, and that membership is a covenant, and to be dissolved not at the will of one of the parties but of them both; and finally, to Dr. Storrs's and Dr. Budington's churches it is said that a withdrawal of their fellowship from Plymouth Church is not required by the circumstances. The Council takes occasion to speak of a little too much haste on the part of the expostulating churches when they were in correspondence with Plymouth Church, and, on the other hand, there is a not indistinct allusion to a certain evasiveness on the part of Plymouth in its mode of corresponding. We may say here that the gentleman who seems to have conducted the preliminary pleadings for Plymouth was Brother T. G. Shearman, widely known as one of the acutest legal advisers ever utilized by the Fisk-Gould Erie corporation, let alone corporations ecclesiastical and religious. Popular ignorance of the nature and duties of a council like this has led to the most absurd newspaper talk, printed by the ream, as to the matter in controversy and the merits of the parties. It has been well satirized by the *World*, which has telegraphic despatches from the Vatican, Canterbury, Lambeth, Constantinople, and Mecca portraying the wild excitement at those places when the Council's decision was known. The Pope fainted dead away.

We have received several communications flatly contradicting the assertions of "Plain Speech" in our last number with regard to the state of feeling in Philadelphia about the Centennial. One correspondent points, by way of proof, to the fact that the women obtained the signatures of 48,000 citizens in twenty-four hours to the petition asking for an appropriation of an additional million of dollars, and that one paper containing only twelve names "represented above \$20,000,000 of taxpaying property." All say that if "Plain Speech" had been at the meeting on the 25th at Horticultural Hall, with its "surging masses of mechanics," he would have been utterly crushed, and, it is to be hoped, put to shame. We have no space to spare for an exchange of contradictions, and so shall publish nothing more on this subject. The raising of the required \$4,000,000 by the Pennsylvanians, of which we suppose there is now no doubt, will of course settle the question of fact. We can assure them that in the undertaking in which they are now engaged, the preparation of a Centennial Exposition at their own expense, they have the heartiest good wishes of the rest of the community, and if they give up the plan of having a "big thing," and devote themselves to making a perfect thing, they will have all our thanks besides. What we have objected to most strenuously is the attempt to saddle the United States Government with the expense and general responsibility of an international exhibition, and this, we trust, has now been or will shortly be abandoned. If successful, no human being could tell what the exhibition would cost before it was over, and the cost, whatever it was, would, as the recent vote in Congress shows, be met by irredeemable paper, so that the exhibition would be a lasting shame and disgrace; and any man who advocates it under these conditions we have no hesitation in saying must have something wrong with him, either mentally or morally. The best celebration of the hundredth anniversary in which the nation can indulge is a return to honesty and common sense by a resumption of specie payments. The Fourth of July, 1876, ought not to dawn upon \$400,000,000 of dishonored national paper.

The strike of the machinists on the Erie road seems to be coming to an end after much disturbance and serious danger of a riot. The headquarters of the trouble has been at Susquehanna, where the sympathies of the townspeople have been openly on the side of the employees. The curious spectacle of the citizens of a town praying the Governor of a State to take no measures to prevent a serious outbreak of mob violence is probably explained by Susquehanna's being a "railroad town," inhabited by the strikers and their friends. The strikers seized the trains, and for some days stopped the mails. Governor Hartranft appears to have acted with great energy and decision; and indeed it is only by his action in ordering troops to assist the local authorities that the peace has been preserved. The men began the strike for the purpose of collecting pay which was in arrears; but as soon as they began proceeded to use mob-law, seizing property which did not belong to them, disabling engines, and throwing the entire business of one of the chief highways in the country into complete confusion. It is a misnomer to call such proceedings "strikes." They are really the complete overthrow of organized government, and the introduction of anarchy. Gov. Hartranft certainly deserves the thanks of the country for his firmness in the matter.

The French Committee of Thirty which has been charged with the preparation of a new constitution, or at least of a series of acts which taken together are to serve the purpose of a constitution, has at length elaborated one measure, but this is the most important of all, as it deals with the question of the suffrage, or, in other words, the seat of the sovereignty. The text of it has at length reached us, and it can hardly be said to justify the abuse which has been heaped on it as a monarchical attempt against liberty. It proposes no restriction whatever which is not already in force in this country, except that it raises the voting age to twenty-five years. It exacts no property, or educational, or religious, or social test whatsoever from anybody. It excludes nobody from the franchise for any reason not recognized by the constitution of the State of New York. This is to say, every Frenchman would under it be entitled to vote who was twenty-five years old, was neither a pauper nor a criminal, had resided six months in the district if born in it, or three months if not born in it; who was in the service of the state, or a pensioner of it, or a minister of religion, or a payer of personal taxes for the year, if born in the district, or a taxpayer resident for three consecutive years if not born in it. The only persons who now enjoy the franchise but would lose it under the operation of the new law, are men between twenty-one and twenty-five, and the wandering class who have had no fixed place of abode; but there is nothing undemocratic about these restrictions, and the exaction of a short period of fixed residence, which is reasonable everywhere, is doubly justifiable in France, where the politics of the great cities are so much troubled by the presence of itinerant "workingmen" who have no local interest whatever, and overwhelm the residents on election days as "colonizers," ready either to vote or fight as the occasion may require. But then, there is no doubt that it would diminish the number of votes by, it is said, at least 3,000,000. One million and a half are now supposed to be under twenty-five, and a similar number are unable to produce proof of three months' residence, and in the minds of many this is a fatal objection. But we doubt if the minors would be very formidable malecontents, though the rovers might. The most important and mischievous feature in the bill is the creation of new electoral districts, each of which elects its own member, who must be a resident—a provision which would consign a great many eminent Frenchmen to private life.

Prince Bismarck has produced something in the nature of a sensation, and supplied plenty of food for gossip, by an "interview" with a certain Herr Jökai, a Hungarian of some distinction, and the editor of a paper called the *Hon*, in which the man of "blood and iron" expressed himself with a frankness which appears to be astounding to the European public. The Prince spoke

in strong terms of the value of the Austrian Empire to the peace of Europe, and the value of the German and Magyar elements in the population to its preservation; spoke scornfully of the notion that Germany would care to wrest the German provinces of the Empire from Austria; abused the French roundly, as "implacable savages," Red Indians disguised by help of cooks, tailors, and perruquiers; predicted that Germany would have enough to do in standing guard over them to prevent her wishing for any fresh complications further East; declared that Austria might rely on German aid in the highly improbable event of Russian aggression; that Russia "had no business in Turkey, and no designs on Constantinople"; said there were two Russian policies about that—one that of the Government at St. Petersburg, and the other that of the Minister at Constantinople, who was usually a busybody with a mania for parcelling out Europe, and a very great man until he was recalled—a snub of some severity for General Ignatief. The Prince then made use of language about the Pope which was too strong to be reported, and said he was the only man in Europe likely to cause a commotion. From the present Czar or the Czarevitch he thought nothing of the kind was to be feared; and he added, by way apparently of rousing British susceptibilities, that Russia was "determined to pursue a conqueror's career in Asia by way of giving her dissatisfied elements something to do," and had therefore no interest in making disturbances in Europe. This is generally considered the frankest talk the Prince has had of late, and, unless he has been badly reported, must supply a good deal of food for reflection.

There has been very heavy fighting before Bilbao, in Spain, and in spite of Serrano's telegrams to Madrid he seems not only to have made no progress, and to have lost heavily, but to have been repulsed. His own account, giving his losses in killed and wounded as under 200 after two days' hard fighting, showed the conflict to have been very mild, or his story to be very untrustworthy, and the latter now appears to have been the true explanation. The details of the defeat of Moriones have, however, now reached us, and they give us a good idea of the difficulties with which Serrano has to contend, and before which there was from the first a very fair prospect of his succumbing. The Carlists' position before Bilbao is an exceedingly strong one, including a conical mountain called Abanto, on which they have entrenched themselves among rocks and bushes, at such an elevation that the Republican artillery can only reach them by a vertical fire. The works are fully manned and fairly armed with heavy guns, and Moriones left 1,000 men on the field out of 8,000, after a few hours' fighting. Serrano does not appear to have fared any better, and it is safe to say that he would need another army as large as the one he has got to turn the position. The great want of the Carlists all along has been artillery. This is being gradually supplied; and, what is of more importance, large numbers of the artillery officers who were driven out of the old army when the "Federal Republic" came into existence, have taken service under Don Carlos in preference to living on the contributions of their wealthier comrades. Should Serrano have to retire the town will fall, and the Carlists will then have made their most important conquest.

Rochefort and Pascal Grousset, the two most notorious literary chiefs of the Commune, have made their escape from New Caledonia in an open boat, and have arrived in Australia. One of the misfortunes of France is that two men like these are really able and likely to give the French Government a good deal of trouble, and that the particular kind of government to which they would not give trouble has not as yet been conceived by human imagination. Curiously enough, Rochefort announces, according to the Cable, that one of the first uses he intends to make of his liberty is to "lecture in America," a design which probably every quack and charlatan in the civilized world secretly cherishes, and means to carry out, if he is spared. He hears of the lyceum receipts in this country with much the same quickening of the pulse with which the Spanish vagabonds heard of the discoveries of Columbus in the Caribbean Sea and of the mildness and simplicity of the natives.

THE INFLATION VOTE.

WE would fain hope that the late votes in the House and Senate do not really threaten us with inflation pure and simple, and that before decisive action is taken on the currency question something will be done looking towards contraction and resumption at some future period. But the time for rose-colored views of the probable action of either Congress or the President, it must be admitted, seems to be gone by, and it becomes the duty of everybody, in presence of what is passing in Washington, to look the facts of the situation in the face, and prepare for them, without further reliance on charms or amulets. The first and most unpleasant fact in the series is the apparent connection existing between the inflation movement and the Government management of the Treasury and the custom-houses. The more these two things are examined, the more plainly it appears that they are parts of one great whole under the conduct of two or three skilful men, who "know what they want, and are determined to get it." The same hand which holds "the reserve" has backed up Sanborn throughout, and Sanborn's master controls the patronage at the White House, vigorously supports the boldest schemes of inflation in Congress, and has a mysterious but unmistakable connection, under the pseudonym of "counsel," with Jayne and other members of the "mooty" Ring in this city. The President, too, plays in the whole affair exactly the curious part which he has so long played in the civil-service reform, namely, that of an active reformer on paper, and a very patient witness or perpetrator of abuses in practice. He is in favor of reform, but lets its worst enemy dispose of his appointments; is in favor of specie payments, but allows the Treasury to be used in aid of inflation. Moreover, there is something which would be comic if it were not alarming in the calm with which he declares his perfect satisfaction with Secretary Richardson. No intelligent man in the United States doubts that this gentleman's retirement ought to have taken place long ago, and that his connection with the Sanborn contracts makes dismissal the very least penalty to which he has exposed himself; but the President proclaims every few weeks, with some ostentation, that nothing is further from his thoughts than the infliction of it. It is difficult to avoid the conclusion that this tenacity in keeping the Treasury under its present management indicates an intention to retain it, and "the reserve" along with it, for personal or party purposes which will hardly bear scrutiny.

The second fact which gives occasion for anxiety, is one about which there is no mystery whatever, and yet the true nature of which has been concealed from the public by its connection with the war. The full significance of the issue of the legal-tenders was not perceived at the time when it was made, or indeed until last year, owing to the general belief that it was, politically considered, at worst a "war measure," and, financially considered, at worst a forced loan. As we shall probably, people said, never be engaged in another war of such magnitude as to compel us to fall back on this resource, any damage the greenbacks have done us will be repaired by their redemption, and this will take place before long. We shall come as triumphantly out of our pecuniary as out of our military difficulties, and put our enemies again to shame. This is an exact description of the state of the popular mind at the close of the war. The country was prepared then for whatever sacrifices and exertions might be necessary to bring the struggle with the South to a clean and creditable completion, and vindicate democracy under all circumstances whatever. If the Administration had been at this moment in a situation to deal with the financial question, and press Congress into taking steps to pledge the nation formally to redeem its notes, at definite intervals, in definite quantities, and by a definite process, the rest would, we firmly believe, have been plain sailing. But unhappily Mr. Lincoln's successor was Andrew Johnson, and though he had an able and perspicacious man in the Treasury in the person of Mr. McCulloch, both of them were utterly discredited by the quarrel with Congress, and it became a point of honor with the Republican majority to pay no heed to their recom-

mendations on any subject, even if the cares of reconstruction had left it time or inclination to listen to them. The result was that the consideration of the financial situation was postponed for four years, the tide of speculation in the meantime rising, and the habits and false notions about paper-money which its use naturally bred taking firmer hold of the popular mind. It was by no means too late, however, when General Grant came into office in 1869 to turn the current of public opinion in the right direction, if he had himself been a civilian with even an elementary knowledge of finance, or if he had put the Treasury in the charge of a man of fair training. The choice for that place of an uneducated man, whose life had been passed mainly in wirepulling, with all the conceit and obstinacy of ignorance, with only the narrowest and humblest experience of trade and commerce, caused a most deplorable diversion of the public attention from the condition of the currency, and fixed it on a matter of no real importance—the payment of bonds having twenty or thirty years to run. In this fatal interval the quacks and charlatans and demagogues had time to spread the delusions of which we now see the effects, and with which we are so sorely puzzled how to deal. We find ourselves called upon not only to persuade Congress to adopt some plan of resumption, but to persuade it that resumption is necessary at all, and to prevent it from increasing the difficulties of resumption by fresh issues of paper.

We find, too, that, as the result of the inaction of the last five years, there has arisen a gulf of separation of the most serious kind between the majority in Congress and the intelligence of the nation on one of the most delicate and important problems of civilized life. The press of the country, and its leading scholars, thinkers, merchants, traders, manufacturers, bankers, and administrators—in short, nearly the whole body of those by whose labors it maintains its place in civilization—have protested with singular unanimity against inflation; but the majority has, nevertheless, voted for inflation without much or any hesitation, and we find that this majority is composed partly of needy men without any ideas or knowledge on finance at all, and partly of shrewd "operators," who show the simpletons what to do, and who have their personal ends to serve by producing monetary confusion, and who hope, as in all such cases, to "unload" and escape before the final crash comes. It would have been a serious matter to have had the ruling majority made up of such people even before the war and with the currency in its normal condition. At that period, the interferences with the business of the community into which the majority were periodically led consisted mainly, after Jackson's victory over the Bank, in alterations of the tariff, which were naturally during the war carried to an unusual pitch of violence and frequency. The unfitness of Congress for the exercise of any such power over industry was even then sufficiently demonstrated. But by the issue of the legal-tenders and the displacement of gold and silver coin, it has been armed with a new means of control over trade and industry of a vastly greater extent than any before witnessed or dreamed of, and which is, apart from its financial bearings altogether, one of the most remarkable strides towards centralization we have yet made. Until this power is taken out of its hands, all talk of permanent reform in any field is idle, because the temptations it offers to the crowd of poor or designing men of whom Congress is largely composed, are practically irresistible. The hope which some have entertained that it would be able to withstand those temptations which the experience of all nations who have tried it shows to be inseparable from paper-money, has been proved by the events of the last month to be illusory. The great objection to this money has been proved now by positive experiment to be as valid and strong in Washington as in Paris or Vienna or Constantinople.

It must be remembered, too, that the principle on which this inflation of the currency has been advocated is one which renders the limit of \$400,000,000 indefensible. That is a mere arbitrary line drawn by our necessities during the war. There is no good reason why on inflationist theories it should be regarded. If one hundred millions of fresh paper will "stimulate industry" and give us "cheap money,"

as Kelley says, one hundred millions more will have similar effects, and so on *ad infinitum*. Inflation is a shoreless sea under a starless sky, so that if the late action in Congress be adopted as a policy, it starts us on a voyage without end.

What is the remedy? The first and foremost is, of course, the old one, the rousing of public opinion into determined hostility to these wild and vicious measures and their authors, and the provision of a party organization in which this hostility can find expression, and make itself felt. But this is the work of some time, and it may not be ready to save us till it is too late. Should it appear likely to prove too late, or the situation, for any other reason, assume a hopeless aspect, we think the bulk of intelligent men would agree that the best thing to be done is to urge on the work of inflation as rapidly as possible, so as to burst the bubble at the earliest possible moment. Our only salvation lies in getting back to specie payments, and if the public will not take the recorded experience of other countries and generations as a guide in dealing with the matter, but must have experience of its own, the experiment will be rendered all the less costly and demoralizing by making it as quick as possible in its operation. Therefore, if we are to inflate, let us have out at once all the paper that the wildest inflationist thinks would be good for us. The alternative, in short, presented to us is somewhat like that which sometimes presents itself to an engine-driver when he sees a cow on the track; if he can stop before striking her, well and good; but if this be impossible, the next best thing is to put on more steam and cut through her. In the meantime, or pending this process, individuals can help the country out of the difficulty by conducting their own affairs as far as possible on a gold basis. Promissory notes and nearly all contracts can, under decisions of the Supreme Court, be lawfully made payable in coin, and it will hereafter be prudent as well as patriotic to do so. Steady adhesion to this policy by large numbers would gradually push the greenbacks aside for all purposes but the supply of small change, and would probably before very long open the eyes of the rogues and barbarians in Washington, who are now making us the laughing-stock of the civilized world, and discrediting our securities in foreign markets.

We are here simply sketching in outline a situation of which everybody can fill in the details, and the dangers of which all thinking men perceive and talk about in private. It is a situation, too, which must be dealt with somehow before very long by the people, though the best modes of doing so are not at this moment very apparent. Its immediate difficulties are aggravated by the fact that for the present there is no opposition to which those who wish to express disapproval of the Administration can lend their assistance, for the Democrats are as active in the perpetration of the prevailing follies and offences as the Republicans. We say its "immediate difficulties," because there is no question that this abandonment of their old principles on the part of the former, and their alliance with the corruptionists and inflationists of the other side, promise before long the removal of the only great obstacle in the way of a political organization having for its object the restoration to the Government of those characteristics of purity, economy, simplicity, decentralization, respect for law and for individual rights, subordination to popular convenience, obedience to the rules and experience of civilized finance and political economy, of which the anti-slavery controversy and the war have robbed it. Thousands who have been willing to work for these things, and who have never been deceived by the sentimental notion that the Republican party was a kind of church, outside of which there was no salvation, have been deterred hitherto by the fear of helping the Democrats to upset the Constitutional amendments and undo the results of the war. That fear the rapid effacement of party lines which we are now witnessing is removing, and we should have seen some positive results of its removal before now, we doubt not, if the ridiculous termination of the Cincinnati Convention had not created a wide-spread and not unnatural reluctance to initiate a new movement.

THE INFORMER'S RELATIONS TO THE CIVIL SERVICE.

FOR several years now we have had the spectacle before us of a few thoughtful men earnestly pressing upon public attention the improvement of the civil service, and of a few distinguished statesmen throwing ridicule upon the attempt. On the one side, it was shown clearly enough that the condition of the service was such that it must inevitably bring loss and disgrace, if not great danger, upon the country; and on the other, it was derisively said that we should have an autocracy of office-holders which in time would be no better than an hereditary aristocracy, and that "true democracy" or "true republicanism" or the "spirit of our institutions" requires that men should be "rotated" in and out of office, and offices be made the spoils of political parties. We have pointed out often enough in these columns how the disorganized and demoralized condition of the civil service tends to pull down every respectable man who enters it, and that when neither fidelity nor diligence nor official zeal nor personal capacity procures a man's promotion or commendation, or even continuance in office, the effect is to make him first a discontented honest man, and then to lead him into doing what other men in office do. But notwithstanding that such views have been pressed upon the attention of those of our public men who certainly possess both intelligence and experience enough to appreciate them, and notwithstanding that there were facts, known much better by those gentlemen than by the public, which demonstrated the truth of all that has been said, there has been a policy apparently designed to keep the civil service in a condition which should make it a commodity for Congressmen to deal in, and at the same time so inefficient that an auxiliary system of informers or moiety-men would be thought an indispensable civil-service appendage.

Accordingly, we find existence a new species of official hybrid made up of men who are not exactly in the Government and not wholly out of it, but whose official or unofficial function is to keep the civil service running, and do the work, in fact, which ordinary officials have been supposed to do, at least in theory. It was held by our statesmen that if a man's merits were recognized in the civil service; if he were assured of his place when he did his work honestly and well, or were tolerably sure of promotion when he developed the qualities of a superior and faithful officer, we should soon have a dangerous aristocratic class, without the simplicity and poverty which ought to characterize the officials of a free country. Instead of such a dangerous aristocracy, we have been favored with unaristocratic officials like Jayne, for whose simplicity we pay two or three times as much as we pay the President. Judge Davis has told the Committee on Ways and Means that they have no idea of the numbers and activity of this class, and it is plain enough now that the class has assumed such proportions and acquired such power as to be able to lord it over our importers and taxpayers on the one hand, and over the civil service on the other.

The question now before the country is, whether this class shall be continued as a portion or at least an adjunct of the Government. Our policy has been to pay an apprentice, a copyist, or a laborer twice as much as he could get from an ordinary employer, and hence to invite into the service as much political material as places could be found for. Our policy has also been to pay men in responsible positions requiring experience, ability, and integrity a great deal less than they are worth, and hence to eject them from the service as fast as they can find places elsewhere, or make them regard it as an undesirable makeshift so long as their necessities compel them to remain in it. The present condition of affairs is the necessary result of this policy—the inevitable effect of causes which have been for a long time held up to the public view. The men to whom we confide official duties, and on whom we suppose official responsibilities rest, we pay as little as possible and make as worthless as possible. Another set of men, on whom the Government has relied to get the difficult part of its work done, we have been paying a compensation

so enormous that it might well induce the most avaricious of European place-holders to come over here and adopt the simplicity of republican institutions. But nevertheless the question remains whether, if we cut loose from this expensive though unaristocratic class, there is enough of ability and integrity in our civil service to carry out this part of the governmental work; that is to say, the part that is outside of mere routine, and requires knowledge, energy, and more than everyday acuteness and ability. The Chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means now has the question brought officially home to himself. He is one of those statesmen who on the one hand voted for the Sanborn amendment, and on the other hand have obstinately opposed every increase of salary, however deserving, to say nothing of his being unable, after sixteen years' continuous experience in Congress, to suggest any measure for purifying, elevating, and doing justice to the civil service. The country must await with some interest the means by which he will extricate us from the quagmire into which he as much as any man has helped to lead us.

So far as our present revenue system of taxing imports and industries is involved, there are two distinct ends to be kept steadily in view: The collecting of all the revenue is desirable, but the keeping out of smuggled goods from our market is indispensable. If we lose the services of Messrs. Jayne and Sanborn, we may calculate with some approximation to accuracy how much in dollars and cents the Treasury will suffer, and we may vote that it is easier to bear the loss than to trouble ourselves about a civil service which will really collect the money. But unfortunately, with those losses of dollars and cents from the Treasury the business does not come to an end. The importer has not only to make the heavy advances which our revenue system requires, and to bear the loss of all the intricate and tedious machinery by which goods are moved through the custom-house, but he has next to deal with a hidden enemy in the fraudulent importer. If the smuggler were content to sell at the highest market rates and pocket the whole of the duties out of which he has defrauded the Government, it would not affect so much those men who have honestly paid their duties. But, instead of this, the fraudulent importer inevitably proceeds directly or indirectly to undersell his honest competitor. Customers come where goods are sold cheapest. The ordinary competition of mercantile life is difficult to contend with; but when there is brought upon the field this new enemy, with an unrestricted power to drive others out of the market, the danger becomes one which cannot be trifled with. It is no wonder that Mr. Claflin and other great importers regard it as a more serious danger than the suits of the District-Attorney or the compromises of Jayne. It is an evil that cannot be long neglected, and the fact must be faced, from the first, that if the Government will continue a system of exorbitant duties, it must take upon itself the task of seeing that those duties are collected from substantially all the goods that come into the country. Our revenue service is in such woful plight that to depict it correctly one must complete the admirable illustration of Mr. Jackson Schultz by saying that Mr. Dodge, who compromised, recommends others to fight, and Mr. Cummings, who fought, recommends others to compromise, while Mr. Claflin, who has not yet been compelled to try fighting or compromising, but who has been compelled to compete with smugglers, thinks it better for the mercantile community to be robbed by the agents of the Government than to be ruined by competition with goods which have not paid duties.

Unfortunately, it does not seem to be apprehended that the cause of the importer is the cause of everybody who is fed and clothed with imported goods. There has been much indignation at the loss of revenue, and some sympathy for the individuals whose wrongs have been brought to light; but when it comes to the question of remedy, too many persons and newspapers speak of our merchants as a wealthy class who would doubtless like to be rid of duties and custom-houses altogether, but who can bear up under a great deal of official adversity. It does not seem to be understood that, as it is the consumer who in the long run pays the duties, so in the long run it is he who must pay for the moieties of Sanborn and the rob-

beries of Jayne. Nor is it perceived that an honest merchant who pays fifty per cent. in the way of duties, storage, etc., cannot long compete with a dishonest one who pays only thirty per cent. The alternative is to cheat or to retire. The raid upon Mr. Cummings occasioned him some loss; but when his foreign partners determined to abandon the enterprise, take down their machinery, reship it to Europe, and withdraw their capital from a country which seemed to them to be in a state of official lawlessness, the loss fell upon us. The raid cost our consumers a new competitor; the wealth of the country, the loss of half a million of capital; its industry, employment for five hundred men. So in this one instance we see how this system can destroy commerce, frighten away capital, and break down manufactures. The legislative side of the Government has heard secretary after secretary calling attention to the fact that our statutes are obscure, contradictory, and often incomprehensible; and yet Congress has steadfastly neglected to revise them. The executive side has had official reports of the corrupt practices of its officers; yet it has retained them in service, giving them, as it were, an implied authority to be bribed. Instance after instance has been laid before the Treasury Department of merchants or manufacturers with business suspended by its official inquisitors, and it has answered by ruinous delay. When such wrongs become general, they enter into the risks and losses for which the business community makes its customers pay.

The moiety system, our experience and the experience of the world have shown, has these three inherent characteristics: First, while the amounts pocketed by the informer are unconscionable, the balance which finds its way into the Treasury is an inconsiderable percentage of the revenue; second, while the system is supposed to be a disagreeable necessity to bring rogues to justice, its operations are largely devoted to harassing honest men; third, while it is designed as a machinery to uncover fraud, it is, from its unofficial, irresponsible nature, the very machinery which fraudulent persons can best use to cover up their offences. We may not absolutely do away with moieties, but we cannot depend upon them. Our revenue service must run alone if it would move at all, and cannot be allowed to hobble upon such crutches. We may pay our revenue officers a small percentage in lieu of salaries or in addition to salaries, so as to secure greater effort and greater vigilance, and make the pay in some degree commensurate with the service; but we cannot afford to pay them for their work, and then allow them to amass fortunes in the manner they are now doing. We are, in fact, not paying them to be vigilant, but bribing them to be oppressive. Our ordinary civil service may be difficult to manage, but these semi-official informers are much more beyond the Government's scrutiny. The fact that so few real frauds have been brought to light by them is one of the most suspicious facts in the whole of the disgraceful business. We may sum up the argument in a single sentence—that a system of informers and moiety-men, whether they be in or out of office, is a system of rogues out of whom other rogues are most likely to profit, and that no Government and no business was ever carried on by such an instrumentality without paying the penalty of moral degradation and pecuniary loss.

INSECTIVOROUS PLANTS.

I.

THAT animals should feed upon plants is natural and normal, and the reverse seems impossible. But the adage, "*Natura non agit saltatim*," has its application even here. It is the naturalist rather than nature that draws hard and fast lines everywhere, and marks out abrupt boundaries where she shades off with gradations. However opposite the parts which animals and vegetables play in the economy of the world as the two opposed kingdoms of organic nature, it is becoming more and more obvious that they are not only two contiguous kingdoms, but are parts of one whole—antithetical and complementary to each other, indeed; but such "thin partitions do the bounds divide" that no definitions yet framed hold good without exception. This is a world of transition, in more senses than is commonly thought; and one of the lessons which the philosophical naturalist learns, or

has to learn, is, that differences the most wide and real in the main, and the most essential, may nevertheless be here and there connected or bridged over by gradations. There is a limbo filled with organisms which never rise high enough in the scale to be manifestly either animal or plant, unless it may be said of some of them that they are each in turn and neither long. There are undoubted animals which produce the essential material of vegetable fabric, or build up a part of their structure of it, or elaborate the characteristic *leaf-green* which, under solar light, assimilates inorganic into organic matter, the most distinguishing function of vegetation. On the other hand, there are plants—microscopic, indeed, but unquestionable—which move spontaneously and freely around and among animals that are fixed and rooted. And, to come without further parley to the matter in hand, while the majority of animals feed directly upon plants, “for ‘tis their nature to,” there are plants which turn the tables and feed upon them. Some, being parasitic upon living animals, feed insidiously and furtively; these, although really cases in point, are not so extraordinary, and, as they belong to the lower orders, they are not much regarded, except for the harm they do. There are others, and those of the highest orders, which lure or entrap animals in ways which may well excite our special wonder—all the more so since we are now led to conclude that they not only capture but consume their prey.

As respects the two or three most notable instances, the conclusions which have been reached are among the very recent acquisitions of physiological science. Curiously enough, however, now that they are made out, it appears that they were in good part long ago attained, recorded, and mainly forgotten. The earlier observations and surmises shared the common fate of discoveries made before the time, or by those who were not sagacious enough to bring out their full meaning or importance. Vegetable morphology, dimly apprehended by Linnaeus, initiated by Caspar Frederic Wolff, and again, independently in successive generations, by Goethe and by De Candolle, offers a parallel instance. The botanists of Goethe's day could not see any sense, advantage, or practical application to be made of the proposition that the parts of a blossom answer to leaves; and so the study of homologies had long to wait. Until lately it appeared to be of no consequence whatever (except perhaps to the insects) whether *Drosera* and *Sarracenia* caught flies or not; and even *Dionaea* excited only unreflecting wonder as a vegetable anomaly. As if there were real anomalies in nature, and some one plant possessed extraordinary powers denied to all others and (as was supposed) of no importance to itself!

That most expert of fly-catchers, *Dionaea*, of which so much has been written and so little known until lately, came very near revealing its secret to Solander and Ellis a hundred years ago, and doubtless to John Bartram, our botanical pioneer, its probable discoverer, who sent it to Europe. Ellis, in his published letter to Linnaeus, with which the history begins, described the structure and action of the living trap correctly; noticed that the irritability which called forth the quick movement closing the trap, entirely resided in the few small bristles of its upper face; that this whole surface was studded with glands, which probably secreted a liquid; and that the trap did not open again when an insect was captured, even upon the death of the captive, although it opened very soon when nothing was caught, or when the irritation was caused by a bit of straw or any such substance. It was Linnaeus who originated the contrary and erroneous statement, which has long prevailed in the books, that the trap reopened when the fatigued captive became quiet, and let it go; as if the plant caught flies in mere play and pastime! Linnaeus also omitted all allusion to a secreted liquid—which was justifiable, as Ellis does not state that he had actually seen any, and if he did see it quite mistook its use, supposing it to be, like the nectar of flowers, a lure for insects, a bait for the trap. Whereas, in fact, the lure, if there be any, must be an odor (although nothing is perceptible to the human olfactories); for the liquid secreted by the glands never appears until the trap has closed upon some insect and held it at least for some hours a prisoner. Within twenty-four or forty-eight hours this glairy liquid is abundant, bathing and macerating the body of the perished insect. Its analogue is not the nectar of flowers, but the saliva or the gastric juice!

The observations which compel such an inference are recent, and the substance of them may be briefly stated. The late Rev. Dr. M. A. Curtis (by whose death, two years ago, we lost one of our best botanists and the master in his especial line, mycology), forty years and more ago resided at Wilmington, North Carolina, in the midst of the only district to which the *Dionaea* is native; and he published, in 1834, in the first volume of the “Journal of the Boston Society of Natural History,” by far the best account of this singular plant which had then appeared. He remarks that “the little prisoner is not crushed and suddenly destroyed, as is sometimes supposed,” for he had often liberated “captive flies and spiders, which sped away as fast as fear or joy could hasten them.” But he neglected to state, although he

must have noticed the fact, that the two sides of the trap, at first concave to the contained insect, at length flatten and close down firmly upon the prey, exerting no inconsiderable pressure, and ensuring the death of any soft-bodied insect, if it had not already succumbed to the confinement and salivation. This last Dr. Curtis noticed, and first discerned its import, although he hesitated to pronounce upon its universality. That the captured insects were in some way “made subservient to the nourishment of the plant” had been conjectured from the first. Dr. Curtis “at times [and he might have always at the proper time] found them enveloped in a fluid of mucilaginous consistency, which seems to act as a solvent, the insects being more or less consumed in it.” This was verified and the digestive character of the liquid well-nigh demonstrated six or seven years ago by Mr. Canby of Wilmington, Del., who, upon a visit to the sister-town of North Carolina, and afterwards at his home, followed up Dr. Curtis's suggestions with some capital observations and experiments. These were published at Philadelphia in the tenth volume of *Meehan's Gardeners' Monthly*, August, 1868, but they do not appear to have attracted the attention which they merited.

The points which Mr. Canby made out are, that this fluid is always poured out around the captured insect in due time, “if the leaf is in good condition and the prey suitable”; that it comes from the leaf itself, and not from the decomposing insect (for when the trap caught a plum-curculio, the fluid was poured out while he was still alive, though very weak, and endeavoring, ineffectually, to eat his way out); that bits of raw beef, although sometimes rejected after awhile, were generally acted upon in the same manner—i.e., closed down upon tightly, slavered with the liquid, dissolved mainly, and absorbed; so that, in fine, the fluid may well be said to be analogous to the gastric juice of animals, dissolving the prey and rendering it fit for absorption by the leaf. Many leaves remain inactive or slowly die away after one meal; others reopen for a second and perhaps even a third capture, and are at least capable of digesting a second meal.

Before Mr. Canby's experiments had been made, we were aware that a similar series had been made in England by Mr. Darwin, with the same results, and with a small but highly curious additional one—namely, that the fluid secreted in the trap of *Dionaea*, like the gastric juice, has an acid reaction. Having begun to mention unpublished results (too long allowed to remain so), it may be well, under the circumstances, to refer to a still more remarkable experiment by the same most sagacious investigator. By a prick with a sharp lancet at a certain point, he has been able to paralyze one-half of the leaf-trap, so that it remained motionless under the stimulus to which the other half responded. Such high and sensitive organization entails corresponding ailments. Mr. Canby tells us that he gave to one of his *Dionaea*-subjects a fatal dyspepsia by feeding it with cheese; and under Mr. Darwin's hands another suffers from *paraplegia*.

Finally, Dr. Burton-Saunderson's experiments, detailed at the last meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, show that the same electrical currents are developed upon the closing of the *Dionaea*-trap as in the contraction of a muscle.

THE VENUS OF MILO “RESTORED.” *

PARIS, March 13, 1874.

THE gem of the sculpture galleries of the Louvre, the Venus of Milo, is known all over the world, and some bronze reductions of it probably adorn houses in China and in California as well as the mantelpieces of the most humble Frenchman. We have been lately quite startled by the announcement that there was something wrong about this deity of the Louvre, and I have recently had the good fortune to spend a few hours in the Louvre with M. Ravaission, one of the keepers of the Muséum who has found the flaw in this admirable statue. The history of his discovery is quite curious. During the siege of Paris the Venus, being one of the most important treasures of the Louvre, was taken from its pedestal, was completely enveloped in plaster as a protection against shells, and hidden in the cellars of the Louvre. After the siege the plaster was removed, and it was then found, on close examination, that there was a horizontal circle of plaster round the statue which was not superficial. The Venus in fact was made of two pieces of marble placed one over the other. The peasant who found the statue in the Grecian island when ploughing a field, found it in two pieces; but the statue was not broken—it was originally made in two parts. There were holes on both sides of the plane of separation, and wooden pegs kept the two parts united. In the country where the Venus was found many statues have been burned by the peasantry to make plaster. The Venus was saved almost by accident, and as the French Ambassador happened to be cruising at that time in the Archipelago, it was bought by M.

* The reader is referred for a different view of the same subject to Mr. Stillman's article in No. 387 of the *Nation*, Vol. XV., Nov. 28, 1872.—ED. NATION.

de Marcellus and sent to Paris. The discovery of M. Ravaïsson consists in this: he maintains that the two pieces have not been well placed one over the other, owing to many minor accidents, the details of which I cannot undertake to explain in this letter, and which can only be well explained on the spot. The upper half of the statue is a little too much inclined forwards and one side. As it is seen in the photographs, it is not in its original equilibrium. But here is something even more important: the left foot of Venus was broken—it was originally placed on a helmet; the right foot is on the ground. Now, the Greeks always placed their statues on the natural ground, on uneven surfaces; but the gentlemen who placed the Venus in its actual position in the Louvre imagined that the sole of the foot ought to be quite horizontal; they sacrificed the whole equilibrium of the statue to this horizontality, while if you examine many old statues you will see that the soles of the feet are generally on inclined ground. The mistake which was made by the gentlemen who placed the Venus on its pedestal is quite obvious as soon as your attention has been well turned to it. She falls forward; she is quite out of equilibrium. The defect is not well seen in front of the statue, but from the side you can see it even in a bronze reduction. The statue ought to be thrown slightly backward, and then the right foot becomes slightly inclined, but the solidity and the majesty are much more striking. M. Ravaïsson has placed two models in plaster side by side, one a perfect imitation of the actual Venus, and the other in the position which he imagines was the true one, and his version is decidedly the best; the goddess then stands quite erect, and has not that stooping air which is perceived in the other.

Then comes the much-disputed question: How were the arms of the now armless deity disposed? did she stand alone, or was she a part of a group? This is the theory of M. Ravaïsson on the subject: He imagines that Venus is standing by Mars. She does not, as many have believed, place a crown on his head; the battle is ended; the foot of Venus is on the helmet of the victim of Mars. He has still his own helmet on his head, his sword is by his side; but Venus is on the point of disarming him; one of her hands is on the sword, the other from behind seizes the shoulder-belt. M. Ravaïsson has made the whole group in plaster, and it has a very fine and natural appearance, while it exactly places the two arms of Venus in the attitude which is noticed in the mutilated statue.

The ancient Greeks had only a certain number of conventional types of statues; these types were, so to speak, the sacred themes on which the sculptors only made variations. There was a typical Minerva, a typical Jupiter. Venus often appears with Mars, representing not only a religious, but a national idea—the victory of civilization over barbarism, of the Greeks over the Persians; she was then figured in the process of disarming the conqueror. M. Ravaïsson has had the patience to search everywhere for the variations, if I may say so, of the Venus of Milo; he has found more than a dozen, and when they are placed beside each other, mutilated as most of them are, it is impossible not to see the family look, the working out of the same idea in various times. At the very beginning, when Greek art was still very severe and chaste, we find the Venus called the "Falerone," which is covered with light and what our sculptors call wet draperies, in the Phidias style; but every muscle, every movement of the body is identical with what you see in the Venus of Milo. This last stands, as it were, at the top of this series of holy images in marble; the most perfect beauty, without veils, but still chaste and almost awful in its perfection, the true goddess of Olympus. Then come the figures of the *décadence*, among which is the famous Victory of Brescia; for this pretended Victory is simply a Venus. The wings have been placed on it at a later period, and, what is strange enough, have been attached over draperies. Even under the Roman Empire, the old tradition of Venus and Mars was kept up; and we see in one of the galleries of the Louvre one of the Antonines and his wife represented as Venus and Mars. The Imperial Venus has her hair arranged very much as one of our fashionable hairdressers would arrange it now; she is of course dressed, but her attitude is the exact copy of the Venus of Milo, while her Emperor is a sort of caricature of Mars.

The Venus of Milo is therefore a conventional type which has run through all antiquity: it is one of the ideal and religious forms attributed to beauty, as representing one of the elements of civilization. In one of the numerous casts which M. Ravaïsson has taken, the foot of Venus is on a helmet of a very curious form; it is the helmet of a barbarian, and has two horns—the idea of animality was, in the Greek ideal, attached to barbarism. The theory of M. Ravaïsson is supported by many other monuments of antiquity, by some medals, old texts, etc. The part which relates to Venus seemed to me very satisfactory. I was, I must confess, somewhat disappointed in his Mars. He represents him as somewhat brutal and coarse, very similar to many figures seen on the old Etruscan

vases—there is nothing in Mars of the ideality of Apollo, of the noble majesty of Jupiter; he is a good prize-fighter, and nothing else.

Paris is the city of contrasts: on the very day which I had spent, as it were three thousand years ago, in the quiet galleries of the Louvre, I went in the evening to Offenbach's new theatre and saw "Orpheus." Here again I found myself in Olympus; but what an Olympus!—a collection of mountebanks. I had seen Offenbach's "Orpheus" when it first came out, in a dingy little theatre. The gods were, so to speak, in rags; but there was much gaiety among them, and the music in this modest theatre seemed more lively and melodious. "Orpheus" made the reputation of Offenbach; but now the maestro has taken the poor little operetta on to a grand stage. My eyes were dazzled for five hours by electricity. I saw a splendid Apollo, with his horses in the midst of the sky, as brilliant as the living sun. The scenery of Olympus was dazzling; the ballets in the kingdom of Pluto more magnificent than anything you could have seen at the Opera before it was burned. I confess that all this splendor fatigued me; my ears became completely insensible, as my eyes were constantly at work. This long caricature of the gods of the Olympus seemed to me even more disrespectful than formerly. As the old "Orpheus" was a mere farce, without any aesthetic pretensions, the new "Orpheus" is a disagreeable mixture of beauty and of nonsense, of grand scenes and of vulgar pleasantries: it is not much better than a pantomime at Covent Garden, and I constantly expected to see the classical Bobby enter Olympus.

Heine wrote fine pages on the old gods; can we not let them alone, in the majesty of their myths? They have been turned out of their temples; must they be brought like vulgar charlatans on our stage? The ancients, to be sure, gave us the example. Aristophanes was not always respectful to his own gods; and everybody has read, at least in a translation, the clever Dialogues of Lucian. The gods of antiquity were well forgotten during the Middle Ages; when the classical studies were revived, the old gods were ridiculed for the first time in the 'Cymbalum Mundi' of Bonaventure Desperrières—a pamphlet written in the form of four dialogues, after the fashion of Lucian. The 'Cymbalum' was very severely judged by the Protestants as well as the Catholics. Henri Estienne called it a detestable book. Calvin spoke of it with much severity. Desperrières, like many freethinkers of the Renaissance, was at first much inclined to the reform of Luther and Calvin; but he soon, like Rabelais, turned his back upon the Protestants. He was not a Christian, he was an infidel, and it is thought that Jupiter and Mercury in his famous Dialogues are only figurative personages. The key of these Dialogues is lost; most of the famous theologians of the time have a place in it, but the commentators and editors of Desperrières are not all agreed. Estienne maintained that the author of the 'Cymbalum' was a contemner of the Christian God as well as of the gods of antiquity. Erasmus and Luther are certainly among the actors of the Dialogues, whose style is very remarkable. It is thoroughly imbued with reminiscences of the classics, and it has besides an acuteness, a verdant exuberance, an originality which belong to the time of Rabelais. The first scene is characteristic: Mercury brings with him to earth the book of fate, which he is ordered by Jupiter to have rebound in the new style. He stops at an inn to have some drink, and two companions, whose acquaintance he makes, steal the book of fate from him. The title of the book is very significant:

"*Chronica rerum memorabilium quas Jupiter gessit an'equam esse t'pse.
Fatorum prescripta; sive, eorum que iurta sunt certae dispositiones.*"

Some parts of the 'Cymbalum' have become almost unintelligible; but the book will always be worth the study of those who take an interest in the origin of the French language and the mental state of France at the time of the Renaissance.

I have been drawn far away from the Venus of Milo. The Greek anthropomorphic forms of beauty, of strength, of grace, of wisdom, of majesty will, I trust, never fall under the slight arrows of such men as Lucian, of Desperrières, of Offenbach. They represent all the virtues and all the forces of mankind in the most ideal form. Their aesthetic value will long survive their mythological significance; art will always return with joy to the fountains of Greek imagination.

Correspondence.

A LAST DYING REQUEST.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I believe it has always been the custom for the hangman to grant the last simple request to the man about to be hanged. Let us then, as men doomed to destruction, pray that Congress, for decency's sake, may omit from the new issues of irredeemable paper the words "The United States

promise to pay one dollar," etc. The new note should read somewhat as follows:

"This is a Dollar
(E Pluribus Unum).
God Save
The United States of America."

And, inasmuch as all men agree that fresh issues of irredeemable paper in time of peace mark the beginning of a new era in the financial history of our country, it would seem an appropriate device to print on the back of each note, in vivid green, a great American eagle with outstretched wings. This currency would then be known of all men as the "spread-eagle greenback."

Of course, the majority in Congress will gladly grant this simple prayer. No man who believes that we and our fathers have hitherto dwelt in bondage to gold and silver, can wish for a moment to retain the symbol of slavery after the chain itself has been broken.

Yours respectfully, W.

RELIGIOUS BIGOTRY IN RUSSIA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION :

SIR: Will you allow me through your columns to call attention to certain acts of discourtesy, not to say injustice, shown to Americans in this part of the world by officers of the Russian Government? Several years since, the Rev. Dr. ——, an American resident at Constantinople, desired to visit a sister lying ill at Odessa. He applied to the Russian consulate for a visé to his passport, which was refused on the ground that he was a clergyman. Considerable correspondence upon the matter ensued between the American and Russian embassies, and at last the Rev. Dr. was allowed to go to Odessa and see his sister, his passport being viséd as a "turner," the profession of the good man in his youth.

Some months since, two other American gentlemen desired to pass through a portion of Georgia, and applied to the Russian consul of the city where they were at the time for his visé upon their passports. This was refused, because they were ministers of the Gospel. The fact was communicated to Hon. G. H. Boker, United States Minister at Constantinople, who at once presented the same to Gen. Ignatief, the Russian Ambassador at the Porte. The cool reply of Gen. Ignatief was, "Our Government, you know, is a little careful about allowing clergymen to enter Southern Russia." Mr. Boker's response was courteous but decided, and to this effect: "Did they not, as American citizens, present passports given under the seal of the American Government?" The General sought to excuse his consul on the ground that he was probably an ignorant man who did not know his business, but was told that no consul should be allowed in such a position who did not know enough to respect the seal of the American Government. The result was, that communication was held with St. Petersburg by telegraph, and permission to visé those passports was received from the central government.

Several years since, the agent of the American Bible Society at Constantinople was requested to fill orders for Scriptures in the modern Armenian languages, for various persons, Armenian merchants, artisans, and others in Georgia and other provinces of South Russia. These books were sent, but were stopped upon the frontier, not being allowed to pass the custom-houses, although presented as articles of commerce, liable to appropriate duty. The demand for these books continued, and was so great that irresponsible parties would purchase them at Constantinople, Erzerum, and other places, and introduce them clandestinely into the Empire. The Bible agent, although he had nothing to do with these underhand operations, labored assiduously to remove the difficulties which led to such proceedings.

In April, 1872, a direct appeal was made to the Government at St. Petersburg, through its ambassador at Constantinople, for permission to introduce the Scriptures in modern Armenian and the Ararat dialect of the same through all the custom-houses of South Russia. That there might be no misunderstanding, a copy of each of the books for which this permission was asked was sent with the request. The matter was put on commercial grounds. The Russian Ambassador at Constantinople said that there could be no objection to the granting of the request, for it was the desire and effort of his Government to put the Scriptures in modern Russ into the hands of all the people. The price of a Testament had been put so low that every man, woman, and child could buy it. It is also well known that the Russian Government, at its own expense, has provided the Koran for its Moslem subjects. English, French, and German Scriptures, too, are allowed to be imported for those who wish them.

The answer of the Russian Government to this reasonable request was delayed more than eighteen months, and was only recently communicated to Hon. G. H. Boker, in the following terms: "In April, 1872, in introduc-

ing the agent of the Bible Society to Gen. Ignatief, A.D.C., your excellency presented to the Imperial Embassy the request of that society for permission to import its Armenian translation of the Scriptures into Russia. It is with regret that I inform you, Mr. Minister, that the above-mentioned translation not being found in all points conformed to the received text, the Imperial Government has not been able to grant the permission requested." It is proper to add, that this translation corresponds to the English, German, French, Arabic, and all other translations circulated by the Bible societies of England and America, and was made direct from the Hebrew and Greek texts by that eminent philologist and Hebrew scholar, Rev. Elias Riggs, D.D., LL.D., of Constantinople, whose attainments in Biblical criticism cannot be too highly valued. Dr. Riggs has also translated the Scriptures into the Bulgarian language, and is now on a committee for the revision of the Turkish Bible. This act of the Russian Government is greatly to be regretted. It is a retrograde movement, whose object is to curb thought and keep the Scriptures from thousands who desire to possess it in a language which they can understand. By whomsoever inspired, this act certainly does not do the Russian Government much credit for liberality and large enterprise for the good of its population.

CONSTANTINOPLE, Feb. 28, 1874.

Notes.

D. APPLETON & CO. publish a narrative of his campaigns by Gen. J. E. Johnston, of the Confederate Army; also, 'Principles of Mental Physiology,' by Dr. W. B. Carpenter; and 'Responsibility in Disease,' by Dr. Henry Maudsley.—Macmillan's forthcoming works include 'Cave-Hunting,' by W. Boyd Dawkins; 'The Physiology of the Circulation in Plants, in the Lower Animals, and in Man,' by Dr. J. Bell Pettigrew; and the 'Higher Schools and Universities of Germany,' by Matthew Arnold.—'The Correspondence of Rev. Dr. W. E. Channing and Lucy Aiken' will be published, for the first time, by Roberts Bros.—Thirty-eight paintings, representing the last summer's work of the late John F. Kensett, have been presented to the Metropolitan Museum of Art by the artist's brother, Mr. Thomas Kensett. The Boston Museum of Art has, through the kind offices of M. Auguste Laugel, secured for temporary exhibition the precious collection of paintings owned by the Due de Montpensier. It will be worth a special journey to Boston to see them.—Some further particulars concerning the Venus of Falerone, mentioned in our Paris letter this week, are given in the *Art Journal* for March (Virtue & Yorston). It should be remarked, however, that Falerone (the ancient Faleria) was never an "Etruscan town." It lies on the east side of the Apennines, on the river Tenna, about twenty miles from the Adriatic; and in 1836, when the statue was discovered there, was included in the States of the Church. This number of the *Art Journal* has a steel engraving of Gérôme's "Death of Cesar."—Professor Angelo De Gubernatis writes from Florence to the *Athenaeum* that Dr. Karl Hillebrand is about to edit for a Viennese publisher a quarterly review, written in German, which will seek to bring about a better understanding between Germany and Italy. Dr. Hillebrand has acquired an enviable international reputation as a writer for the chief reviews of four European countries in the language of each.—Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co. have in preparation 'The Literary Reader,' chronological selections from the best British and American authors, by Geo. R. Catcart.—Sermons by a popular and justly esteemed preacher of Chicago, Rev. Prof. David Swing, are announced, under the title 'Truths for To-Day,' by Jonson, McClurg & Co.

—It would be well if the Centennial could show in some form, graphic, symbolic, or literary-historical, the characteristics of the several decades since the Declaration of Independence. In any such representation we should have the years immediately preceding and succeeding 1840 grouped into what might be called the "yeasty period," when, along with the anti-slavery agitation, the temperance agitation, the incipient stages of the woman's-rights agitation, was witnessed the rise of a cloud of isms which enveloped the reformer like a mist. He was no true man, each doctrinaire in turn or all together assured him, unless, in addition to wishing freedom for the slave, equality for woman, and the overthrow of King Alcohol, he was also a non-resistant, an anti-Sabbatarian, a Fourierite or other experimental socialist; a vegetarian who ate Graham crackers; in medicine a Thompsonian, or a homœopathist, or at all events a firm believer in the water-cure; a believer also in mesmericism—the day of spiritualism had not yet come; an unshakable convert to phrenology, and a faithful attendant of "conventions" in season and out of season. Many of us can recall, too, the orthographic reformer of that same delightful epoch, with his *Fonetic Nuz* and his bright

anticipations of humanity relieved of the painful and costly drudgery of learning to read and spell; his dreams of a tearless and precocious infancy, ripening into an adult generation of Mezzofantis for whom the curse of Babel had been suspended, and with whom the brotherhood of man should fairly begin to be ushered in. As lasting results of his rosy faith and ardent enthusiasm, the antiquarian would have little to show except a few musty files of defunct phonetic periodicals; a mass of wordy warfare between inventors and plagiarists, with sundry interminable lawsuits growing out of it; two or three active schools of phonographic instruction according to as many rival systems; some hundreds, may be, of short-hand reporters in the courts, in the legislatures, at every mass-meeting; and, as the bright consummate flower of it all, instead of the apostle of a universal language, the "interviewer" slyly taking notes on his linen cuff or on his thumb-nail.

—We have been led into these remarks by an interesting article in the *Panstenographikon* (Vol. I., parts 3 and 4) on "Die fonografische Literatur in den Vereinigten Staaten Nordamerikas." The writer is Prof. Karl Knortz, at present of Cincinnati, well-known for his studies in the language of our American aborigines. His review of the rise, progress, and present condition of phonetic reform and practice in the United States is more complete than any with which we are acquainted, but might profitably be followed by a second article in answer of certain questions suggested by this one: for example, why phonetic periodicals have been so short-lived; why stenography has not been universally introduced into our schools—at least into those of the higher grade; why instruction in it has not been so simplified that it can be acquired without a teacher; why no process has yet been invented by the most ingenious of all peoples for printing the short-hand characters in connection with the ordinary text, etc., etc. Prof. Knortz's article is one of several which compose the above-named issue of the *Panstenographikon*. This luxurious publication of the Royal Saxon Stenographic Institute at Dresden aims to compare the principles and peculiarities of all systems of rapid writing (*Geschwindschreibsysteme*), with a view to obtaining an independent judgment of the merits of each, and, we infer, deducing by-and-by a universal system scientifically framed. The number before us opens with "Studies in Latin Stenography," written in Latin, and illustrated by a costly supplement, containing the *Noteæ Bernenses* of the XVIth century—stenographic signs for a vocabulary of nearly 9,500 Latin words, duly indexed. This is followed by an account of the Dutch systems, in Dutch; of the French systems, in French; the American, in German (K. Knortz); Joseph Mindler's Greek system, in Greek; and, finally, the Roumanian, also in the vernacular—a language not often met with in print on this side of the Atlantic. It is needless to say that the greatest diversity prevails among all these systems, not only as between one country and another, but in the same country; and that while each may suffice for what is required of it in its daily local application, they would not equally stand the test of a scientific analysis.

—A novel mode of Shakspere criticism is partly described in the *Academy* of March 14, in an abstract of a paper on "Metrical Tests" read by Mr. F. G. Fleay before the New Shakspere Society, and in a letter from Mr. Fleay on "Troylus and Cressida" on a subsequent page of the same journal. This writer's scheme of metrical tests is not confined to Shakspere. Each of the early dramatists, he declares, differs essentially and characteristically from every other in the number of rhyming lines, of lines with double endings, of stopped lines, etc. "By comparing plays known to have been produced near the beginning and end of his career, Mr. Fleay shows that Shakspere gradually introduced into his work double endings, Alexandrines, and short lines; and especially that he gave up the rhymed line in favor of blank verse." The result of a most laborious enumeration of these metrical features in every play of Shakspere's has been to convince Mr. Fleay that the "Taming of the Shrew," "Henry VI.," and "Titus Andronicus," "Henry VIII.," and "The Two Noble Kinsmen," "Pericles" and "Timon of Athens," are: the first three, in the main not Shakspere's, but productions of the Greene and Marlowe school; the next two, partly Fletcher's; the last two, Shakspere's only in part. In fixing the chronology of the other plays, he assigns to the first or "rhyming period" "Love's Labor's Lost," "Love's Labor's Won," "Comedy of Errors," "Midsummer-Night's Dream," "Romeo and Juliet," and "Richard II." These, together with the "Two Gentlemen of Verona," "Richard III.," "Merchant of Venice," and "King John" (the first four of the "comedy and history period"), all determined "by the rhyme tests solely, are the ten plays given in Mercé's list"; and, continues Mr. Fleay, "the chance of selecting these ten plays out of the thirty which are undoubtedly Shakspere's, is less than one in twenty millions." As for "Troylus and Cressida," the subject of a special communication, Mr. Fleay asserts that "it is composed of two parts which do not form portions of an organic whole," and that in short "we have here a play finished about 1603

[‘tragedy period’], but begun some ten years before, and laid aside." The same was the case, he believes, with "All's Well that Ends Well." Mr. Fleay passes on to remark that the whole of Shakspere's comedies, if not his tragedies, "can be grouped in pairs according to their subject-matter; the plays in each pair being strongly contrasted with each other in other respects." On this principle, the "Cressida" part of "Troylus and Cressida" offers the necessary contrast to "Romeo and Juliet," which it would succeed "on rhythmical grounds."

—Having mentioned the New Shakspere Society (we give the spelling of the poet's name as adopted by the Society), we ought to inform our readers that any one of them wishing to become a subscriber may remit \$6.50 to Prof. F. J. Child, Cambridge, Mass., or 24 shillings to Arthur G. Snelgrove, Esq., London Hospital, London, E. For this sum he will receive, postage paid, the Society's publications of the year. It will immediately undertake a series of texts illustrating the works and times of Shakspere, and the history of the drama, beginning with the "Originals and Analogues of Shakspere's Plays"—Part I. consisting of the first two Quartos, 1597 and 1599, of "Romeo and Juliet," in parallel columns. The subscribers' copies will all be quarto, but a cheaper and smaller form will be adopted for popularization. The Society is now fully organized, and about to print. Mr. F. J. Furnival, the indefatigable founder, hopes for "a thousand members—many from our Colonies, the United States, and Germany; so that the Society may be a fresh bond of union between the three great Teutonic nations of the world." We venture to think that there are already Shakspere classes and reading-clubs enough in this country to furnish its quota—say three hundred—to the Society's membership. The American vice-presidents, by the way, are Prof. Child (Honorary Secretary), Mr. and Mrs. Horace Howard Furness, Prof. J. R. Lowell, and Mr. Grant White.

—A statement in the recent life of Mr. Archibald Constable, the celebrated Scotch publisher, has called out from Mr. Justin Winsor, of the Boston Public Library, an interesting contribution to bibliography. In the "Life," we are informed of a projected edition of Shakspere, to be published by Mr. Constable and to be edited by Sir Walter Scott. The first conception of the work seems to have been Constable's, who vaguely imparts his notion to Scott in a letter bearing the date of the 22d of February, 1822, in which he suggests a twelve-volume edition, with readable notes, and intimates that as editor of the work there is but one man to be thought of. Scott took the hint, acknowledged in his reply the necessity for "a sensible Shakspere," but pleaded that he had neither time nor patience for such a work, and that when done and put forth in his name it would be almost sure to disappoint expectation. In September, 1825, occurs the next mention of the work; at that date it is "getting on"; but, says Mr. Constable's biographer, when the crash of 1826 came upon the house, only three volumes had been completed, and these were at once laid aside, and ultimately were sold in London as waste-paper. Upon this, Mr. Winsor remarks that fifteen years ago, in the printed account of the Barton Collection, now among the stores of the Boston Library, public mention of this Scott "Shakspere" was first made; and that the Collection perhaps contains the only volumes of that edition which are now extant. The account given of these volumes is not such as will persuade the reader that he has lost much from the work's remaining unfinished. To tell the truth, it appears to have been far too mercantile an affair. The three volumes now at Boston are the second, third, and fourth of the series, and are of octavo size. They are made up as follows: II. "Two Gentlemen of Verona," "Love's Labor's Lost," and "Merchant of Venice"; III. "Midsummer-Night's Dream," "Taming of the Shrew," "As You Like It," and "Much Ado about Nothing"; IV. "Merry Wives of Windsor," "Measure for Measure," "All's Well that Ends Well," and "Twelfth Night." Each play has a brief page or two of introduction; there is no general introduction, for that, as we have said, was to come in the volume last to appear; the notes are from the ordinary sources, except that at the end of "Love's Labor's Lost" there are some "Notes concerning the character of Holofernes," which, as we suppose, differ from the others, and differ for the better as regards originality. On fly-leaves in the volumes are two memoranda, one signed by T. Rodd, a well-known London bookseller with whom Mr. Barton had constant dealings, and the other written by a friend of Mr. Barton's. Mr. Rodd's note says that he had been for some time aware of Scott's intention to edit a Shakspere, and even had sent him materials; that he bought these volumes at a sale in Edinburgh, where they were catalogued as Scott and Lockhart's, and he adds that they "have marks of Scott's usual inaccuracies." Scott, he goes on, "is the most faulty and careless of writers, unless it be T. F. Dibdin." The friend's note points out that at the time when Scott was presumably at work on this Shakspere, he was giving other indications that he was busy with the poet. Thus, in his "History of Scotland," there is an historical disquisition on "Macbeth," with a reference to Shakspere's inaccuracies in the

drama of that name; and in 'St. Ronan's Well' there is a full sketch of an amateur theatrical representation of 'A Midsummer-Night's Dream.' Slender enough evidence this letter; but the case as it stood would seem to have had no need of further evidence. Mr. Winsor enquires if any one knows of another set of these volumes which escaped destruction, and states that not Bohn, Allibone, Thimm, nor the authorities of the Birmingham Shakspere Memorial Library give any sign of knowing that such an edition exists.

—After giving the Boston *Advertiser* an account of the Scott Shakspere in the Barton Collection, Mr. Winsor puts to American Shaksparians the following question:

"I would like to ask if any of the American Shaksparians has in his possession or knows the whereabouts of a collection of MSS. made by George Chalmers, which was advertised in Thorpe's London Catalogue of 1844 as follows: 'Shakespeariana Collectanea—papers and documents illustrative of Shakespeare and the stage, 1445-1797, four volumes folio, £31 10s.' So excellent a Shaksprian as Mr. Halliwell (Phillips) is not aware of its present ownership, and has conjectured that it may have come to America."

—Moore, in an "Epistle to the Lady Charlotte Rawdon from the Banks of the St. Lawrence," fancied that he heard "some Indian spirit warble words like these":

"Then when I have strayed awhile
Through the Manataulin isle,
Breathing all its holy bloom,
Swift I mount me on the plume
Of my Wakon-Bird, and fly
Where, beneath a breezy sky,
O'er the bed of Erie's lake
Slumbers many a water-snake,
Basking in the web of leaves
Which the weeping lily leaves."

(In a later edition, three lines were amended—

"Swift upon the purple plume
Of my Wakon-Bird I fly
Where beneath a burning sky," etc.)

In a foot-note Moore quotes from "Morse" a statement that "the Wakon-Bird, which probably is of the same species with the Bird of Paradise, receives its name from the ideas the Indians have of its superior excellence; the Wakon-Bird being, in their language, the 'Bird of the Great Spirit.'" This (in "Morse's Americana Geography") was copied from Carver, who had described this bird as "nearly the size of a swallow, of a brown color, shaded about the neck with a bright green; the wings are of a darker brown than the body; its tail is composed of four or five feathers, which are three times as long as its body, and which are beautifully shaded with green and purple," etc. He says that he "never saw any of these birds in the Colonies, but the Naudowessie [i.e., Sioux] Indians caught several of them when he was in their country." A correspondent of the London *Notes and Queries*, Jan. 3 and March 14, is "very desirous of knowing what bird it was which the North American Indians called 'Wakon' in the days of the first explorers." It is not surprising that he failed to find in Audubon "any description that corresponds with Carver's," which is far from accurate. The Sioux "wakon-bird"—in their language *zitka wakan* or *zitka wakan-tanhan*—is the American magpie (*Pica melanoleuca*, var. *Hudsonica*), common enough in the Northwest, but not often seen east of the Missouri. *Wakan* does not mean "Great Spirit." Like the Algonkin *manitou* it denotes something "extraordinary," "preternatural." Under the teaching of the missionaries, *Wakan tanka*, i.e., "great wakan," has come to be the Sioux name for God, as *wakan shicha*, "bad wakan," is for the devil. Moore's "wakon-bird," it may be suggested, had no business to be flying so far east as to Lake Erie, or even to "Manataulin isle" in Lake Huron; and no "Indian spirit" who, in the flesh, had lived near the St. Lawrence, would be likely to borrow from his enemies, the Sioux, a name for the magpie—the *apishkagagi*, i.e., "purple raven," of the Algonkins.

THE RECOLLECTIONS OF MRS. SOMERVILLE.*

THE 'Personal Recollections' of Mrs. Somerville seems to us one of the pleasantest books of the year. Little is said in it about the author's scientific career; and there is almost as little of the anecdote and ana which might have been expected from a writer who was looking back over a period of ninety years, and over three generations of the distinguished people of several countries. But the volume is nevertheless most interesting and pleasing. For one thing, the complete impression upon the reader's mind of an admirable and lovable character; the feeling it gives him as of having been in the company of a superior woman, lend to these reminiscences a veritable personal charm, under whose influence the hardest reader may become gentle. He makes the acquaintance of a clever, learned woman, and one who is sage also with the wisdom of a long

period of years, who yet is the most modest, simple-mannered, graceful, and gracious of persons. To speak thus of her may appear something too like her own generation's rather insulting wonderment at finding Mrs. Somerville not only a scientific woman, but also a lady in every sense of the word and a person of all the domestic accomplishments. But to tell the truth, the public has of late years been furnished with plenty of excuses for apprehending various things whenever a woman with some masculine powers and achievements is brought forward. It is probable that Mrs. Somerville has therefore been suffering more or less in the estimation of those to whom her life was not known; and that with some people the book has been useful if not indeed necessary in disabusing their minds of an unjust prejudice.

We may add that the captivating nature with which these Recollections make us acquainted is very worthily dealt with by the editor. Her reserves and her statements are all managed with the best judgment and taste, and the reader is trebly gratified with the story—for what it tells, for what it omits to tell, and for the manner of narration. This last is the manner of an old gentlewoman who cons over in her mind recollections recent and ancient, and talks of them vivaciously and cheerfully to her friendly auditors. As for the omissions of the book, some of Mrs. Somerville's friends not bound by the same considerations which could not but restrain her daughter, have permitted themselves to do her justice by bringing into view some severe hardships of Mrs. Somerville's early years, to which the book makes no allusion. We refer to her marriage with her first husband, Mr. Samuel Greig. This gentleman was her cousin, and, so far as appears in evidence, he got her because he asked for her; because he was willing to take her without fortune, of which she had none; because he was a man of the proper station and of sufficient means; and finally, because the family theory in regard to such matters was that Miss was to hold her tongue and do what her mother bade her, and that to refuse a fair match was a kind of a sin in a girl. Their wedded life is said to have been anything but pleasant for the wife. Her father had made it a condition of the marriage that she should not be carried away to Russia, where Mr. Greig held an office, and which in 1804 was a still less desirable place of residence than it is now. An arrangement was made by which Mr. Greig secured the Russian consulship in London; but that he was not allowed to take his wife to St. Petersburg offended him, and he is reported to have taken his revenge. He provided for her no fit home, and he kept her on a scant allowance of money. The kind of treatment to which he subjected her may be understood by the current explanation of a fact briefly mentioned in her autobiography: As a wedding present, her mother had given her twenty pounds with which to purchase a shawl or something warm for the following winter. But her father, Sir William Fairfax, had been an English admiral, and was one of the heroes of the great victory of Camperdown and of the mutiny at the Nore. His daughter, thus for all reasons an ardent patriot, appears to have no sooner reached London than she proceeded to spend her wedding present in his honor:

"I knew that the President of the Academy of Painting, Sir Arthur Shee, had painted a portrait of my father immediately after the battle of Camperdown, and I went to see it. The likeness pleased me—the price was twenty pounds; so instead of a warm shawl I bought my father's picture, which I have since given to my nephew, Sir William George Fairfax. My husband's brother, Sir Alexis Greig, who commanded the Russian naval force in the Black Sea for more than twenty years, came to London about this time, and gave me some furs, which were very welcome."

We are told that the reason why these furs "were very welcome" was that Mr. Greig, who did not see fit to countenance foolish ways of spending money, would not make good the lost shawl.

Another brief glimpse that we get of her suggests that "the Rose of Jed wood," as Miss Fairfax had been styled, would soon have faded in Mr. Greig's keeping: "My husband had taken me to his bachelor's house in London, which was exceedingly small and ill ventilated. I had a key of the neighboring square, where I used to walk. I was alone the whole of the day." By-and-by the editor relieves the reader by remarking that "after three years of married life my mother returned to her father's house in Burntisland, a widow with two little boys." As for Mrs. Somerville's second marriage, it was extremely happy. For a second husband she married another cousin, Mr. Somerville, who, so far from thwarting her thirst for knowledge as nearly every relative and friend had hitherto done, himself joined her in her pursuits, admitted her distinguished talents, and all his life rejoiced in her successes and honors. Some of his family were of another mind in regard to his wife's studies. "As soon as our engagement was known," says the lady, "I received a most impudent letter from one of his sisters, who was unmarried and younger than I, saying 'she hoped I would now give up my foolish manner of life and studies and make a respectable and useful wife to her brother.' I was extremely indignant. My husband was still more so, and wrote a severe and angry letter to her.

* 'Personal Recollections, from Early Life to Old Age, of Mary Somerville, with Selections from her Correspondence. By her daughter, Martha Somerville.' Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1874

None of the family dared to interfere again." In this instance the rebuke, coming from a presuming young spinster to a matron of thirty-three years old, was at once resented and punished; but up to this time it had been Mrs. Somerville's usual course either to submit, as she did in her childhood; to oppose a passive resistance and carry on her studies in secret, as she did later in girlhood; or to shun society and contention and devote herself quietly to her books. There is one other instance of resentment at intrusive advice in an earlier period of this same widowhood. Mrs. Greig received several offers of marriage, and of the wooers who paid court to her one sought to recommend himself by sending her a "volume" of sermons with the page ostentatiously turned down at a sermon on "The Duties of a Wife," which were expatiated upon in the most illiberal and narrow-minded language." This gentleman was refused.

Her father being away at sea during the infancy of his daughter her education was attended to by her mother, a very pious woman of not much mind, who seems to have held in all its strictness St. Paul's alleged view in regard to the proper position of women. To know cookery, napery, Scottish genealogies, the catechism of the Kirk, and the way of bearing children, was her notion of the true feminine life, and Mary grew to be a good-sized girl with very little knowledge of books. She never cared for dolls, she says, and had nobody to play with, so that she was driven to begin her education by herself, and soon she had a little budget of lore about the garden birds and their habits, their flight and so forth, which gave her occupation and amusement. About her catechism she is free-spoken, and we gather that of her one principal book she was by no means fond, and that her discipline in learning it by heart did for her what it has done for many thousands of people, and greatly "liberalized" her theology. An anecdote bearing on her religious education she tells of an aged mother in Israel who one day appeared as a fellow-catechumen. Our author is speaking of the annual public examination by the minister: "These meetings, which began with prayers, were attended by all the children of the town and neighborhood, with their mothers, and a great many old women who came to be edified. They were an acute race, and could quote chapter and verse of Scripture as accurately as the minister himself. I remember he said to one of them: 'Peggie, what lightened the world before the sun was made?' After thinking for a minute she said, 'Deed, sir, the question is mair curious than edifying'"—a sufficient epitaph for several systems of divinity once useful.

Her father coming home at this time found her a perfect savage, able to read, but with a strong Scotch accent, and untaught in the art of writing. He at first attempted giving her instruction himself, and every morning after breakfast made her read a chapter in the Bible and a paper of the "Spectator." "The consequence is," she added, "that I have never since opened that book." For it is to be observed that all her life long Mrs. Somerville had a decided will of her own, and that, as she ingeniously phrases it, she knows one trait of her own character if she knows no other, and that is that she has always been very "persevering." Hume's "History of England" was also at this juncture of her life "a real penance," and her father evidently found his post difficult, for he at last said to his wife: "This kind of life will never do; Mary must at least know how to write and keep accounts." She was therefore put at a boarding-school where she "was utterly wretched," and where she learned next to nothing. From this school she went home, and horrified her cousins by her bad spelling and her mother by having come home with so little handwriting for so much money.

But now very soon her mind began to awake, and although opposition to her reading so much began at the same moment when she discovered Shakespeare, and began to spend every moment poring over it, still she was in the path of progress, and though impeded was never stopped. In a chatty and amusing way she tells of her difficulties, the account of which she intersperses through a cabinet of sketches of the Scottish society of three-quarters of a century ago, and of herself as a pretty, merry belle, not averse to "a little quiet flirtation"; learning to dance at Mr. Strange's school, while the garrison officers look on at the exercises; taking lessons on the piano and lessons in painting; being a very violent Liberal in politics; and very much enjoying herself as the Rose of Jedwood. Her painting-master seems to have given her curiosity the direction in which it afterwards went so far. Once she overheard him talking to another pupil about perspective, and her attention was struck by the words, "You should study Euclid's 'Elements of Geometry,' the foundation not only of perspective but of astronomy, and all mechanical science." Here suddenly she got light on a dark subject, for she had been much puzzled by some portions of a book on navigation which she had picked up. Still, as for going to a bookseller's and asking for a "Euclid," it was "impossible"; "but," she adds, "I never lost sight of an object which had interested me from the first," and by-and-by her brother's tutor does her the favor of getting her the desired books. She attacks "Euclid" with ardor,

and soon has the pleasure of hearing her father say, "Peg, we must put a stop to this or we shall have Mary in a strait-jacket one of these days. There was X. who went raving mad about the longitude." But marriage and widowhood gave her freedom; her second marriage confirmed it; she improved it with great industry and great ability, and before many years the almost accidental request to write an explanation of La Place's "Mécanique Céleste" opened for her the brilliant career which has made her name known.

RECENT NOVELS.*

"THE Parisians" is a novel of so very panoramic a character that it is difficult to say that there is any plot in it at all. There is, indeed, one central love-story, that of Isaura Cicogna and Graham Vane, Isaura being a beautiful Italian girl, educated to be a singer, and quite competent, as her brilliant success in fiction in the columns of *Le Sens Commun* amply proved, to shine as an author as well; the protégée too of Mme. de Grantmesnil, one of the most distinguished literary lights of the French literature of our day, with whom Isaura carries on what appears to the reader to have been a somewhat tedious though very noble and elevating correspondence. Mme. de Grantmesnil is an advocate of progress, and, in detail, of a kind of progress which demands an immediate rectification of the laws on the subject of that ancient form of servitude known to us as marriage. Isaura, on the other hand, though she is an ardent worshipper at the Grantmesnil shrine, and has many of those vague and beautiful aspirations proper to the young of her sex, does not feel so strongly the monstrous character of the marriage tie as does her older friend. Indeed, it may be doubted whether she thinks much about it; her thoughts being mainly occupied with less general questions. She is in love with Graham Vane, and Graham Vane is in love with her; but he, a staid Englishman, is filled with gloomy doubts when he thinks of her questionable friendship with such a foe of society as Mme. de Grantmesnil and also of Isaura's artistic training and apparently natural destination for a public life. Besides this, Graham Vane (or, as he is known to his Parisian friends, Gram Varn), though a rich man, is uncertain of being able to retain his wealth, which was bequeathed to him on certain conditions not generally known, but of the most imperative obligation. It is unnecessary to state these in all their details, but the peculiar difficulty of his position will be perceived when we say that he knows that it may be necessary for him to relinquish all or the greater part of his riches in order to carry out the intentions of his testator. Under these circumstances, he appears before the world as a rich man, but at the same time he feels that he is not appearing in his true character. Therefore, he leaves Isaura almost heart-broken, to carry out his mission. Meantime, one Gustave Rameau, a Parisian poet of the new Red school, who has what is called a beautiful soul, but unfortunately a far from beautiful disposition, falls madly in love with Isaura; and, though she does not care for him, so much influence is brought to bear on her that she finally consents to an engagement. In the end, of course, she marries Graham Vane, and Gustave marries "Another." This love-story is very long, and rather stupid. Isaura is a little too elevated, and Gram Varn a little too perfect a type of the English gentleman, to be endured; but they are only two figures. Besides them there are a host of Parisians, and as the scene is laid in Paris, and there is a political plot ending in the Communistic revolution of 1871, the book may be said to be rather a picture of the Parisian world four years ago than a true novel. There are many amusing characters, some of them so lifelike that it seems as if they must have been drawn from actual life; in others, Colonel Morley, the American, for instance, who speaks in a strange tongue, using such expressions as "Sirius is a keener"—meaning, apparently, that the star Sirius may be relied upon to perform its stellar duties with something more than regularity; "You don't Turkey now"—meaning that the person addressed is coming to the point; and "gallantizing"—a word having apparently an inter-sexual signification, we do not feel the touch of nature very strongly. But Savarin, the man of letters and patron of literary men; Lemercier, the young man about town, who operates on the Bourse in a quiet way on hints given him by one of the great speculators; Louvier and Duplessis, the great rival speculators themselves; the young Marquis de Rochebriant and his relatives; Gustave Rameau;

* "The Parisians." By Lord Lytton. New York: Harper & Bros. 1874.
"Jupiter's Daughters." A Novel. By Mrs. C. Jenkins, author of "Who Breaks, Pays," "A Psyche of To-day," "Skirmishing," etc., etc. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1874. (Leisure Hour Series.)

"Bébée; or, Two Little Shoes. A Story. By 'Ouida.'" Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1874.

"Prosper. A Novel. Translated from the French of Victor Cherbuliez by Carl Benson." New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1874. (Leisure Hour Series.)

"Publicans and Sinners; or, Lucius Davoren. A Novel. By Miss M. E. Braddon. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1874.

"Ivan de Biron; or, The Russian Court in the Middle of Last Century. By the Author of 'Friends in Council,' etc. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1874.

Victor de Mauléon, himself an aristocrat, but turned foe to society in secret, and revenging himself for wrongs done him in the past by becoming an enemy of the existing régime, and exciting the passions of the Parisian mob that he may ride into power on their shoulders, and perishing miserably in the attempt—these and others make the book entertaining. It is intended, if we may judge from the preface, written by Lord Lytton's son, as a satire upon the tendencies of modern life—part of a sort of satirical trilogy, the other two parts being "The Coming Race" and "Kenelm Chillingly."

We are glad to find some of Mrs. Jenkin's pretty stories in the "Leisure Hour Series," for though they are of unequal merit they have all a charm of their own, which is sure to prevent even those which are least good from being wholly uninteresting. They are all written in agreeable English, which, to hazard a guess, has been just enough affected by an intimate acquaintance with French to increase the delicacy of the style without rendering it affected. "Jupiter's Daughters" is the story of a French girl who, as a matter of duty, to please her parents, marries a M. de Subar, when she is in love with some one else, and regrets it for the remainder of her life. Of course, after her marriage, she falls in with M. Vilpont, but this does not make her any happier. She is a good wife, and nothing is left for her, after her adventures during the Prussian siege of Paris are over, but a life of self-devotion on the altar of duty. "'Prayers are the daughters of Jupiter,' said the ancients" (we quote Mrs. Jenkin); "the moderns say, *Hoc vult Deus.*" The novel seems to be directed against the French system of marriages, and certainly if that system always involved the rejection of a noble and devoted lover, the selection of a frivolous or weak husband, a life of unhappiness, the treachery of an old servant, the robbery of valuable jewels, the loss of a large property, and a near approach to death by murder, it would seem to be time for the French system to be supplanted by the English, American, or German. The descriptions of life in St. Gilo, the little provincial town from which the heroine, Pauline Rendu, comes, are often very attractive.

From our point of view, and that an easy one for the hardened reviewer to take, there is but little use in denouncing "Ouida's" novels. There will always be a number of people ready to read them, although there are even more who will religiously shun them. With all their faults, which at this late day it is hardly necessary to enumerate, there is at times, and especially in the shorter and less ambitious tales, a certain enthusiasm, a sympathy with pathos, a warm love of nature, and an eloquent description of some landscape—all of which, in the eyes of her admirers, outweighs her deep-pervading tastelessness. Her stories vary in merit. Some are written about nothing but the sons and daughters of Belial; in others, again, she is more innocent. There is, however, a trail over even the least offensive, and in "Bébée," part of which is very pretty if rather strained and unnatural, we get the old-fashioned "Ouida" smouch in the hesitation between sin and innocence on the part of the familiar, cynical, atheistic, loose-lived hero.

"Prosper," or, as it was called in French, "Prosper Randoce," is a story which shows at once the cleverness and the weakness of Cherbuliez in a strong light. It is cleverly constructed; it is full of bright dialogue; its situations are all contrived with consummate art; there is a great deal of good analysis of feeling and character; and yet, when we have finished it, we ask ourselves involuntarily, what is the meaning of it all? The story of "Prosper," in brief, is this. Didier de Peyrols, a young man of what Cherbuliez considers the Hamlet order, with great sensibility and at the same time indecision of character, has left him as a legacy by a dying father the hunting up of a relative hitherto not known by him to exist—a natural son of his father, and therefore his half-brother. This half-brother he discovers in one Prosper Randoce, who turns out to be a vagabond poet of a very doubtful life and criminal disposition, whom Didier undertakes to reclaim. He does not reclaim him, however, but he marries in the end his cousin, the charming young widow, Madame D'Azado, having, in the course of his adventures with Prosper, plucked up enough decision of character to convince himself that he does really love her—a fact of which in the early part of the book he is in some doubt. This is the barest outline of the story, of which the greater part is taken up with the development of the wild character of Prosper, and the contrast of his impulsive, hot-headed, and at the same time calculating and cruel behavior with that of the steady, unswerving Christian Didier, who at first believes Prosper to be a man of his word, or at least not the sort of poetic desperado he turns out to be. Didier certainly does all in his power to carry out his father's commands, and his "truly good" manner of carrying them out is so different from that of Hamlet that it makes the parallel between that prince and Didier in the opening of the story rather ludicrous. We will not quarrel with M. Cherbuliez's notion of the character of the Danish prince, for Shakspearian criticism has let loose so many Hamlets upon the world that it would be almost an infringement of

personal liberty to prevent an author from picking out his own from the crowd. But we will give it in his own words:

"Indolent as Hamlet!" I think he would willingly have adopted this motto, and, however ambitious it may appear, he would have found no difficulty in justifying it. The young Danish prince has remained the immortal type of those men whose generosity of character and loftiness of mind render them unfit for action. To play a part on the stage of the world, one must not fear to commit one's self with fortune; and whoever will take the trouble to reflect, will not be long in finding out that she shows little delicacy in her choice of friendships, that she often bestows her favors unworthy, that petty means and petty passions easily find grace in her sight, and that if success is always applauded, those who bow down and burn incense before it soon grow niggardly of their esteem. At the University of Wittemberg, Hamlet had learned to despise public opinion and its toys. He concluded that things have no value beyond what vanity bestows upon them, that there is no aim worthy of effort, that to pass judgment on life is better than to live it. His cynical indifference protected him from all ambition, he cared for nothing but his thoughts."

Taking this for the nonce for our Hamlet, we find it difficult to see in Didier's quiet, dogged pursuit of an irreclaimable brother any resemblance to the character. On the other hand, Prosper is certainly a startling Bohemian, but it is difficult to see in his criminal career any well-connected purpose on the part of the author. On the whole, however, we must say that Cherbuliez is untranslatable. The cleverness of dialogue, which is one of the things in which he shows most skill, is, even in a good translation like this, lost in great measure.

"Publicans and Sinners" is a tale of baffled villainy and true love. The lovers are, on the one hand, Lucius Davoren and Lucille Glenlyne, and on the other, Geoffrey Hossack and Janet, the sister of Davoren. The villain is one Ferdinand Sievewright, the son of a respectable Englishman, but born without moral principle. He begins his career by drugging and robbing his father; running off with Janet, Lucius Davoren's sister; deserts her; becomes desperado and gambler, and emigrates to America, where he appears on the scene in the far West, in the camp of Lucius, Geoffrey, and a Dutchman named Schanck, begging for hospitality. He is taken in by the three unfortunate wanderers, who are themselves almost dying of starvation, and in return he cooks and eats their Indian guide. They do not know who he is. Lucius, discovering his real nature and cannibal tastes, tells him that he will most certainly shoot him if he ever comes to the camp again, and this he is forced to do. Afterwards the villain, who is by no means killed, reappears in England, and tries to first poison and then to stab his old and feeble father, but dies repentant; after which two marriages take place. It is needless to say that the novel possesses all Miss Braddon's wonted charm of style. Why it is called "Publicans and Sinners," we don't know; but there is certainly one sinner in it, and he, with his taste for music—"wilder, stranger, more passionate, more solemn, more awful, than the strain which Orpheus played in the under world"—music which makes Geoffrey Hossack feel as if he "had been listening to a distinguished member of the royal orchestra of Pandemonium—the Paganini of Orcus"—and his eyes of that peculiar hue which "when the light shines upon it seems to emit a yellow flame like the colored light which radiates from a fine cat's eye"—this man, with his "curiously low" forehead, his hair "growing in a peak between the temples," his "cheek-bones rendered prominent by famine," and "the rest of his face almost entirely hidden by the thick, ragged beard of densest black, through which his white teeth flashed with a hungry look when he talked or smiled"—this outcast, whose Indian sobriquet was "Evil Knife," was once the darling of society of one of the most civilized of modern monarchical states. Would such things be possible under republican form of government?

Those who know Mr. Arthur Helps only from the philosophical prattle of such books as "Friends in Council," will be astonished, perhaps, at his appearance in the field of Russian historical romance. But Mr. Helps is an accomplished book-maker, and we do not find "Ivan de Biron," though belonging to a different order of literature, inferior to his other writings. The history in this novel relates to an event which followed upon the death of Anne, Empress of Russia; the transfer of the government to the Duke of Courland, as regent for the infant heir; the conspiracy got up by the Duke's great rival, Münnich; ending with the seizure and exile of the Regent, the installation of the Grand Duchess of Brunswick (the Princess Anne) as Regent, during the minority of the Emperor; and the subsequent conspiracy and seizure of the throne by the Princess Elizabeth, as well as some of the events which ensued upon that revolution. The love story relates to Ivan de Biron—or Biren—the private secretary of the Duke of Courland, and two ladies, one a gypsy, and afterwards prima donna, the other a Russian Princess, who meets Ivan first—where, indeed, many of the characters become most familiarly acquainted with each other—in the Siberian wilderness. Azra, the gypsy, after she is educated for the lyric drama, lives only for art, and cares for Ivan only as a sister, while the Princess Marie, who ap-

pears (if she, too, is an historical character) to have been of a rather vixenish turn, has always cared for Ivan in a different way. Ivan himself must have been of a fickle turn, for which of the two he loves depends a good deal upon which of the two he happens to be with. The story is readable, and the historical part has a barbaric interest of its own, though we must protest against Mr. Helps's endeavor to make the Empress Elizabeth out a good woman. The pictures given of Russian life in the last century, with its murders, conspiracies, debaucheries, spies, and continual treason and counter-treason, are far from agreeable.

Fine Arts.

THE METROPOLITAN MUSEUM.

THE LOAN COLLECTION.—III. ENGRAVINGS, WEAPONS.

IT would be a worthier task to describe the engravings amassed by Mr. James L. Claghorn as a whole collection than according to their present decimated showing; but the specimens selected are fine representative examples, and their number the better corresponds with the limited space we have at our disposal for such a subject. We may begin by saying, then, that after the obscure rise of Italian engraving among the niellos of Finiguerra and other silversmiths of Florence, and after that of German engraving in the person of the "Master of 1466" (whose only specimen in this country is supposed to be that of the Gray collection at Harvard), the series before us takes up the art as soon as it is represented by a definite name, and by plates intentionally prepared for multiplied impressions on paper. By Martin Schön, the real father of German engraving, and a master whom Michael Angelo did not disdain to copy, is shown an early specimen, the "Adoration of the Magi." This is completely Northern in feeling, and contrasts forcibly with the "Combat of Marine Gods around a Statue of Neptune," by his contemporary Mantegna, which shows the strong predilection for the antique which animated in his time the curiosity of the school of Padua; his work is experimental and sketchy; his lines are straight, and almost without hatching, looking like a spirited pen-draught—to which illusion the printing, in a poor and muddy paste like the ink on a faded letter, contributes. Of the four specimens of Albert Dürer, the best for study is the "Knight and Death," exhibited in a proof so tender and beautiful that the complaint of Dürer's want of atmospheric effect quite falls to the ground. A Lucas Cranach, on wood, is a Saint Christopher, full of devout expression, treated almost in outline, but redeemed from bareness by the curly ornamental touch of Northern design. We recur to Italian squareness immediately in the work of Marco da Ravenna, Marc Antonio, and the pupil of the latter, Agostino de Musis, called Veneziano; these engravers, working after Raphael's drawings, and without a thought of the more modern attempts to translate the color of a fine oil-painting, shade the plate with bold, direct strokes, entirely in sympathy with the specimens left to us of Raphael's sketching. They have the collateral advantage of preserving for us some of the boldest and most original conceptions of the great Urbinate; thus the "Sorceress," riding on an animated skeleton among a pythionic crowd, is quite apart from the ordinary field of Raphael's talent, but full of bewitched grace and impulse. A rare design of Michael Angelo's, the "Fall of Phaeton," is in like manner preserved to us in the engraving of Beatrizet. Of the Dutch engravers, Lucas Van Leyden is shown in one of his earlier works, the "Lazarus," and in his most perfect conception of beauty, the "Pyramus and Thisbe," engraved in 1514; and Goltzius in the "Pietà," a composition of his own. These autographic designs are on many accounts the most interesting. The taste for the etching-needle only began in Italy with eccentrics like Guido and the Carracci; Mr. Claghorn's collections shows a very beautiful etching by Guido, a brilliant and mundane Madonna, the plate being exhibited in two states, the first unlettered and the second having the artist's signature; by Agostino Carracci there is a fine St. Jerome, of his own design. The etchers before Rembrandt number some of the greatest names among the painters of the time; thus we see another Jerome, a study for his grand and famous painting, due to the hand of Spagnoletto himself; and an etched portrait, a sketch replete with his own aristocratic elegance, by Vandyck—the half-length of Judocus Citemans. In France, etching was in full practice among men born somewhat before Rembrandt; Callot, the inexhaustible designer for Louis XIII., breathed out battles and necromancy over the varnished plate; his "Temptation of Saint Anthony," which required four various preliminary drawings before the artist could satisfy himself, is represented in this collection, and displays an astonishing wealth of fancy; while Claude Lorrain matched the infinite tableau of human passion given by Rembrandt with landscapes in which the figures were contemptuously thrown in "for nothing"; we have here Claude's "Seaport" and "Departure for the Fields" in his own sketching.

Coming to Rembrandt, we are allowed a selection of five master-works. The "hundred-guilders print," so named from its original price (although it lately brought £1,150 in England), is exhibited in a fine impression, which displays its solemn glory of light and shade in full development; the tumultuous crowd of sick and maimed—the crowd of Christ's poor—relieved in pale or dusky masses among rolling shadows that rise like threatening fumes of malaria, and surround a Saviour likewise poor, and suffering with all who suffer; the sensitive artistic touch, which stops at the instant when the desired expression is gained, and leaves even the Redeemer half-defined in a broad excess of light—these features and characteristics make the "hundred-guilders piece" a monument of unspoiled utterance, of tenderness, awe, clairvoyance, and religion, not the slightest veil seems to lie between the spectator and the artist's thought, which is seen distinct where it was distinct to him, and vague where it was vague. The "Descent from the Cross," an effort of Rembrandt's twenty-sixth year, is here in its third state; likewise the "Lazarus," a later conception, in which the chiaroscuro is incredibly bold, heightened by the massive stirrup-shaped band of black which frames the picture, while the pose of Christ is for once classically noble, and fit to compete with the Italian artists or the old Greeks on their own ground of purity and grace. Works of other Dutch occasional etchers, as Jan Both and Paul Potter, Karol du Jardin and Dusart, are on exhibition, as autographic in character as their paintings are, and more purely preserved; while the "Triumph of Bacchus," an engraving of De Bry's from his own design, shows the Flemish hand almost successfully competing with the Italian in the expression of classic harmony. Salvator's brigandish ferocity of inspiration strikes boldly in his large etching representing Regulus spiked in a cask. By Berchem, who began to handle the point at ten years of age, there is the autographic print of "Crossing the Stream," in the second, or rather the first completed, state.

These etched studies by the old painters have a rare charm; they give us so completely and authentically the exact conception in the mind of the artist. Our obligation to the class of interpreters, however, the engravers who brought all their skill and fidelity to the delineation of great paintings, and were content to lose their individuality in the effort to utter all that the burin could utter of another man's conception, is hardly less great. Some of this class preserve for us works otherwise lost; the famous competition between Leonardo and Angelo, for example, for the walls of the Council Chamber in Florence, is perpetuated at present by the faithful mnemonics of the engravers, the "Bathing Soldiers" being represented by studies of Marc Antonio's and of Agostino's, while Leonardo's "Battle of the Standard," after being copied by Rubens with obvious gusty license, is shown us at third-hand in this collection, in the large engraving which Edelinek made from Rubens's drawing. The old French engravers, hard, liney, self-conscious, and *poseurs* as they are, command respect by their extreme care, their industry and cleverness. One of their patriarchs, Claude Mellan, invents the style of shading in parallel lines, without hatch-work, and shows us as his masterpiece the Veronica's Handkerchief, after a design of his own, where the face is drawn with a single spiral line, beginning at the nose, and winding around itself until the picture is complete—*vide* the impression among these prints. The succeeding French engravers for several dynasties studied almost exclusively the expression of textures—the furs and draperies of Rigaud; and the mind busies itself willingly, when before them, with these details and with the dates and conditions of the plates. Masson's "Supper at Emmaus," from the elaborate perfection of the table-cloth, is known as the "Nappe," and Wille's group after Terburg, the "Conseil Paternel," is called by amateurs, not according to its proper title, but by the name of "The Satin Gown." Evidently something is not quite right when the engraver thus carries it off over the painter on a mere point of technical legerdemain. The impression of the "Satin Gown," after Terburg, above referred to, is perhaps unique, being, as the connoisseurs say, before the border and "arms," and all letters. The "Gray-haired Man," by Masson, is seen in its first state, before the correction of the two errors ("Brisasier" and "Ségritaire") in the legend which runs around the spandrel. The portrait of Samuel Bernard, by the younger Drevet, is in its first state. That by Wille of Louis Phelypeaux, Comte de St. Florentin, is a brilliant impression, before the insertion of the word "Ministre" in the enumeration of his titles. The same engraver's "Musiciens Ambulans" is seen in a choice impression, before the finale *e* in "cour électorale." The Raphael Morgnen, from Murillo's Magdalen, is a truly rare artist's proof before all letters, while, in contemporary times, the proof of Mandel's portrait of the Great Elector, unsurpassable in color and flesh-quality, must be a very perfect early one; and Calametta's copy of Scheffer's "Francesca da Rimini" is an unique artist's proof lettered in crayon by the engraver. Many rare prints, well known to exist in the original gallery, are uncomfortably missed in this abridgment of it.

The rarity of collections of armor in this country gives emphasis to the exhibition of weapons lately opened in the Museum by M. Hippolyte Cogniat. Of the few similar stores upon which American students in the art of war might have built their hopes, the Perkins collection was destroyed in the Boston fire, while another, that made by Mr. William H. Biggs, remains in Paris, and is not yet assured to the public of this nation. The specimens shown by M. Cogniat comprise about three hundred pieces, among which there is not a single suit of defensive armor, only a few detached fragments of knightly panoply being seen among the preponderance of arms for offensive employ. Of these weapons, many are old, a few artistically fine, and none uninteresting. The series begins with the era of the early Crusades, and the long two-edged swords, Nos. 23 and 38, crusading weapons of the thirteenth century, whether or not they may have "leaped," as poets say, into use at the cry of Saint Louis, are rather fascinating from their date and style. To answer these, we have the Saracen weapon, No. 185, a beautiful curved blade of Damascus, the trace of the welded wires plainly showing through the polish of the steel; 186 is a Persian two-edged axe, of very graceful form, damasked with gold in an elegant pattern; 32 is a long two-edged sword, fifteenth century, with moon and sun stamped on it; 14 is a handsome Toledo blade; 43 is another, of the sixteenth century, of plain steel throughout, with basket hilt; 41 is a third Toledo sword, of the sixteenth century again, stamped with the arms of Spain; and 44 is another Spanish sword, very long and thin, and two-edged. The particularly long, plain blade, 25, is an ancient Scottish claymore; and there are in the Cogniat collection, as well as among the other loans of the Museum, good specimens of the Scotch dirk-seabards, adapted to hold more than one dagger at a time, with their weapons sometimes inlaid with large cairngorms. There is a curious show of early gunnery, preceded appropriately by the musket's imperfect pioneer, the crossbow; thus there is an *arbalète à tour* of the twelfth or thirteenth century; 160 is an *arbalète* or crossbow, made light for hunting use, and prettily inlaid with ivory, of the fifteenth century; 161, of the sixteenth century, likewise made very small, and intended for a lady's use, is curious, as the mark on it says: "Dite de Cath. de Medicis"; 162, an *arbalète à levier*, is English; 163 is a crossbow of an age so late as the middle of the seventeenth century; 158 and 159 are elaborate bow-guns for use in war, and showing the tendency for a more effective form of the weapon; the rapid multiplication of shots is insured mechanically by the turning of large cranks fixed on the stock.

From these we come to the old arquebuses and escopettes; 151 is an *arquebuse à rouet*, or lock-musket, mounted with brass, of German manu-

facture, quite short, and dated 1650; 164 is older, being a Spanish escopette of the sixteenth century, elaborately inlaid with silver, and not much longer than a big horse-pistol; 163 is English; 162 is Turkish, with a curious barrel; 153 is a Spanish gun, richly carved about the stock, which is studded with small bosses, dated 1780; 51, a gun made at Strasbourg in the eighteenth century, is remarkable in being intended for bullets in the shape of dice, as is indicated by the sharp quadrangular bore. Returning to the trenchant weapons, the application of fine arts to the armorer's trade under the Renaissance is illustrated in some decidedly handsome specimens: the most beautiful of these, 181, is a long, two-edged Florentine sword of the sixteenth century, the basket and other parts sculptured into careful arabesque fretwork, while medallion heads in gold are liberally set in all the more conspicuous portions of the design; 179 is a long rapier of French make, epoch Louis XIV., and stamped with the signature of "Louis Lerond, fourisseur, Pont au Change à Paris"; 184 is similar to the last, but somewhat finer; 183 is a sword of great length, with gold inlaid in the blade, which is undulating or waved at both edges from hilt to point; 18 is a large plain sword of Spanish manufacture, and assignable to the last century, since it bears in large letters on the blade, "Por el Rey Carlos III." There are halberds, Dutch and Flemish, as old as the fifteenth century. Of that epoch is the halberd-staff, 191, made in Holland, and studded with brass nails to assist the purchase. Many powder-horns are shown, of diverse shapes, and variously elaborate; a curious one is 100, made of ivory, on which the date is engraved among other devices, and corresponds by a singular coincidence with the massacre of Saint Bartholomew in 1572. Coming down to the era of Louis XIV., we see some very dainty and jousting-like pistols; the pair, 168 and 169, are richly mounted with gold, and elegantly chased; 58, of the same epoch, is Spanish; 166 and 167, a very small and harmless-looking pair, correspond with the next reign, and show in the pattern of their inlaid silver the purposeless, ramshackle taste of the epoch Louis XV. The object latest in date is a big sugar-loaf obus, shot into Paris by the Versaillist army, and picked up in 1871 at the Porte d'Auteuil. For opposition to such a show of offensive arms, the armor for protection is, as we observed above, in very scanty proportion. There are a few helmets, among which No. 194 is a *casque gravé et damasquiné*, weighing nine pounds, and attributed to the seventeenth century; 31 is the part of a suit of mail defending the arm, made at Milan in the sixteenth century, and damasked with gold, as is No. 11, which seems to belong to the corresponding arm. It will thus be seen that the present collector, like David, the son of Jesse, in the valley of Elah, scorns the timid protection of defensive armor, and is wholly, or almost wholly, aggressive in taste.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

NEW YORK, March 31, 1874.

THE full effect of the Congressional action on the finances is not apparent in the changes in the bank statement of Saturday. As will be seen by comparison of the aggregates, the week's transactions exhibit no great change in the movements of money. Specie to the extent of \$1,256,700 has been withdrawn (mainly for customs payments) in addition to the \$1,000,000 sold by the Secretary. The deposits have decreased about a million and a quarter, which is an indication that rather more money is being required for "hand-to-mouth" business; but the stationary rates of the loan market (4 to 5 per cent.) indicate that there has been no considerable demand for money at bank for either speculative or trade purposes.

	March 29, '73.	March 21, '74.	March 28, '74.
National Banks.....	\$71,285,000	\$69,235,000	\$69,235,000
State Banks.....	16,729,200	17,354,000	17,254,000
Total.....	\$88,014,200	\$86,489,000	\$86,489,000
Loans.....	274,348,700	285,866,200	286,177,500
Gold notes.....	16,179,100	26,696,600	25,439,300
Greenbacks.....	38,789,800	60,184,400	60,585,100
Deposits.....	193,508,700	240,991,100	239,730,900
Circulation.....	27,635,700	26,717,300	26,726,400

According to a report issued by the Treasury Department, the course of our foreign trade for the first five months of our fiscal year (1873-4) shows the following results:

1. A decrease of foreign goods marketed for consumption in the United States of..... \$88,507,821
2. A decreased outgo of gold and silver, after deducting receipts of foreign specie, of..... 26,596,692
3. An increased export of domestic produce, reduced to gold value, of..... 34,286,802

The three months which have elapsed since will rather tend to increase the exports, and to still further diminish the imports; but the effect of this salutary retrenchment will not be complete until there is either a return current of gold or our own bonds, or otherwise a very considerable enhancement of the value of American securities in Europe, which of course must be equalized on this side.

The tone of the legislation in Congress regarding the currency limit, and on the subject of bank-notes, favors the higher rates for gold. The day following the Senate's action on the \$400,000,000 limit, the price jumped to 113½; it has since fallen to 112¾, and closed on Tuesday at 113¼ bid. The Secretary has announced his purpose to sell \$5,000,000 of the Treasury coin during April; but it is not clear whether this course is required by the disbursements for current expenses or as an abandonment of the policy of drawing on the reserve, or both. It is manifestly not in pursuance of a preparation for actual resumption of specie payments.

United States bonds have felt the influence of the inflation wave; and

as there is likelihood of there being employment for the outstanding issues, both as security for enlarged bank circulation and for export purposes, in lieu of coin, holders are confident. The following are the latest rates for the coupon issues:

U. S. Currency 6's.....	117 @117½	U. S. 5-20, 1865, c., new.....	119½ @119½
U. S. 6's, 1861, c.....	121 @121½	U. S. 5-20, 1867, c.....	120½ @120½
U. S. 5-20, 1862, c.....	117½ @118	U. S. 5-20, 1868, c.....	119½ @120
U. S. 5-20, 1863, c.....	119½ @120	U. S. 10-40, c.....	115 @115½
U. S. 5-20, 1865, c.....	120½ @120½	U. S. 5's of 1881, c.....	115½ @115½

Stocks have had a somewhat checkered week. The first effect of the currency legislation was to start prices all along the line. Since then there has been a reaction, and comparative dulness. One noteworthy feature of this department in finance is the appearance of Mr. Jay Gould as the principal owner of Union Pacific shares, and his elevation as a director of the Company. Squeezed out of every corporation of note on the Atlantic seaboard, he has chosen a new base of operations at the West, whence he may be expected, from his versatile genius and store of money, to effect new combinations among Eastern lines, and to move up and down the market prices of their securities for his own advantage. He is, or was, a large holder of Hannibal and St. Joseph, and Toledo, Wabash and Western stocks; and it would appear as if he or some of his allies were preparing also a desperate raid on the Erie shares in this and the London markets, in the hope of regaining his ascendancy in that Company. His first movement was in Union Pacific Income Bonds, which rose from 75 to 88 upon the announcement of their exchange for a third mortgage bond at the rate of 120. Later, a move was made against short sellers in Union Pacific stocks, which has been carried from 34 to 38. There have been large dealings in Wabash also. Erie was depressed fully 12 per cent. by the serious attitude of the strikers and their coadjutors, the panic-mongers here and in Europe.

Railroad bonds continue to be bought up freely, at prices on the whole quite steady.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks at the Stock Exchange for the week ending Saturday, March 23, 1874:

	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday	Sales.
N. Y. C & H. R. x	99½ 100%	100% 101%	100% 101%	101% 101%	101% 102%	101% 101½	\$6,000
Lake Shore.....	76½ 77%	78½ 78%	78½ 79%	79½ 80%	81½ 82%	80½ 81%	211,800
Erie.....	41½ 42%	42½ 43%	42½ 43%	40½ 42½	40½ 41%	39½ 40%	53,600
Union Pacific.....	33½ 34	34½ 34	34½ 34	35½ 36	36½ 37½	36½ 37½	14½ 3,0
Chi. & N. W.	55½ 54%	55½ 54%	54½ 56%	56½ 58%	56½ 58%	56½ 57½	52,900
Do. pfd.....	70½ 71%	72½ 72%	72½ 73%	73½ 74%	73½ 74%	73½ 74%	4,100
N. J. Central.....	104½ 105%	105½ 106%	105½ 106%	106½ 107%	106½ 107%	106½ 107%	1,700
H. & L. & P.	104½ 105%	105½ 106%	105½ 106%	106½ 107%	106½ 107%	106½ 107%	34,000
Mil. & St. Paul.	41½ 42%	42½ 43%	43½ 44%	44½ 45%	45½ 46%	44½ 45%	51,600
Do. pfd.....	41½ 42%	42½ 43%	43½ 44%	44½ 45%	45½ 46%	46½ 47%	1,200
Wabash.....	41½ 42%	42½ 43%	43½ 44%	44½ 45%	45½ 46%	46½ 47%	50,100
D. L. & W.	41½ 42%	42½ 43%	43½ 44%	44½ 45%	45½ 46%	46½ 47%	13,400
O. & M.	29½ 30%	30½ 31%	30½ 31%	31½ 32%	31½ 32%	31½ 32%	23,8 0
C. C. & L. C.	30 30½	30½ 31%	31 31½	31½ 32%	32 32½	31½ 32%	20,300
W. U. Tel.	76½ 77%	78½ 79%	79½ 80%	80½ 81%	80½ 82%	79½ 80%	317,300
Pacific Mail....	43½ 44%	44½ 45%	45½ 46%	46½ 47%	47½ 48%	47½ 48%	149,700

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